

Education in One World

Perspectives from
Different Nations

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Education in One World

Perspectives from Different Nations

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Volume **11**

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Editorial Preface

This volume contains papers submitted to **the XI Annual International Conference** of the Bulgarian Comparative Education Society (BCES), held in Plovdiv, Bulgaria, 14–17 May 2013, and papers submitted to **the I International Distance Partner Conference**, organized by the International Research Centre ‘Scientific Cooperation’, Rostov-on-Don, Russia.

The XI BCES Conference theme is *Education in One World: Perspectives from Different Nations*. The Distance Partner Conference theme is *Contemporary Science and Education in a Globally Competitive Environment*.

The book consists of 92 papers, written by 141 authors, and grouped into 7 parts. Parts 1–4 comprise papers submitted to the XI BCES Conference, Parts 5–7 comprise papers submitted to the Distance Partner Conference.

The volume starts with an introductory paper by Nicholas Sun-keung Pang on ‘Globalization in the One World: Impacts on Education in Different Nations’. The other 91 papers are divided into the following 7 parts:

- Part 1: Comparative Education & History of Education (10 papers)
- Part 2: Pre-service and In-service Teacher Training & Learning and Teaching Styles (18 papers)
- Part 3: Education Policy, Reforms and School Leadership (8 papers)
- Part 4: Higher Education, Lifelong Learning and Social Inclusion (17 papers)
- Part 5: Educational Development Strategies in Different Countries and Regions of the World: National, Regional and Global Levels (19 papers)
- Part 6: Key Directions and Characteristics of Research Organization in Contemporary World (13 papers)
- Part 7: International Scientific and Educational Cooperation for the Solution of Contemporary Global Issues: from Global Competition to World Integration (6 papers)

The distribution by languages is: 61 papers are in English, 30 in Russian, and 1 in Bulgarian.

Studies presented in the book cover all levels of the educational system – preschool, primary, secondary, postsecondary and higher education. Topics in the field of general, special, and vocational education are examined.

Methodologies used in the studies represent a multiplicity of research methods, models, strategies, styles and approaches. Various types of studies can be seen – national and international, case and comparative, descriptive and analytical, theoretical and empirical, historical and contemporary, scientific and essayistic, critical and indifferent, etc.

A rich mosaic of problems (without any pretension to list all here) is discussed: comparative education, history of education, religion and religious education, pre-

service and in-service teacher training, education policy at national, regional and international level, curriculum reform, school organization reforms, school and out-of school violence, literature education, history education, musical and fine arts education, physical education, orphan children, educational achievements, theory in educational research, equity and competitiveness, foreign language teaching and learning, distance education, problem orientated education, inclusive education, lifelong learning, social inclusion, educational development strategies, and many others. Some very important aspects which have influence on education, such as crime, children's health problems, juridical statements, are also discussed.

The geography of countries included in the studies encompasses the world: Austria, Bulgaria, Canada, China, Cyprus, Denmark, East Timor, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Moldavia, Namibia, Netherlands, Nigeria, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Thailand, Turkey, Uganda, Ukraine, UK, USA, Uzbekistan, Zimbabwe.

While most papers in the volume focus on countries' diversity in the one world, some papers present different worlds in one country. The book is a bright amalgam of ideas, problems and countries, providing many interesting texts to a large circle of readers.

The Editors
April 2013

Introduction

NICHOLAS SUN-KEUNG PANG

GLOBALIZATION IN THE ONE WORLD: IMPACTS ON EDUCATION IN DIFFERENT NATIONS

Abstract

There is only one world, but it is widely divided. All nations share a common interest in the investment and development of education in their own contexts. The one world has been undergoing tremendous, turbulent changes, due to the recent quick movement in globalization. This paper aims to explore what is meant by globalization, how it has impacted on education and what changes in principle have come about. More specifically, it will explore how school, and higher education have been responding to globalization, and what the implications have been for educational research and development in this unprecedented era of global change.

Keywords: Globalization, education reform, higher education, basic education, research and development

There is only one world. But, the world is widely divided, geographically, politically, economically, socially, culturally, linguistically, and religiously. Despite the vast diversities in various aspects, all nations share a common interest in the investment and development of education in their own contexts. Education has essential functions of enhancing the development of individual, society and country. Education provides opportunities for individuals to develop physically, intellectually, morally, socially, aesthetically and spiritually, to maximize their potentials and prepare them for the future. Education facilitates the strengthening of a civil society, and enhances social justice, equity and cohesion. Education helps a nation inculcate civic and social responsibility among its citizens, develop capacity building, promote national integration, and enhance national competitiveness. Each country in the one world strives to establish an education system for the well-being and development of its younger generation, the society and the nation.

The one world has been undergoing tremendous, turbulent changes, due to the recent quick movement in globalization. As a result of globalization, educational change occurs in the development of basic and higher education in many countries in the one world. This paper aims to explore what is meant by globalization, how it has impacted on education and what changes in principle have come about. More specifically, it will explore how school, and higher education have been responding to globalization, and what the implications have been for educational research and development in this unprecedented era of global change.

The Advent of Globalization

Globalization is not a new process. Bates (2002) comments that migration of ideas, artifacts and people has been a constant part of human history but that what appears to be new is the rapidity with which such migrations are now accomplished and the relative weakness of the barriers to them, constructed by nation states in order to maintain their social, political and cultural integrity. Although current concepts of globalization are still blurred and hard to define, it is generally accepted as relating to the global reach of processes of the exchange of goods, the formation of gigantic multinational enterprises, and the virtual abolition of time because of the instantaneous quality of communication all over the one world (Capella, 2000). Carnoy (1999) argues that globalization means more competition, which means that a nation's investment, production, and innovation are not limited by national borders. Globalization has become possible only because of the technological infrastructure provided by telecommunications, information systems, microelectronic equipment, and computer-controlled transportation systems.

There is no universally accepted conceptualization of globalization. Globalization has many faces, thus different theorists view globalization differently. Held (1991, p. 9) defines globalization as "the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa". Pieterse (1995, p. 45) speaks of globalization in terms of "the ideas that the world is becoming more uniform and standardized, through technological, commercial and cultural synchronization emanating from the West, and that globalization is tied up with modernity". Parker (1997, p. 484) views globalization as "a growing sense that events occurring throughout the world are converging rapidly to shape a single, integrated world where economic, social cultural, technological, business, and other influences cross traditional borders and boundaries such as nations, national cultures, time, space, and industries with increasing ease".

Capling, Considine and Crozier (1998, p. 5) argue that, "globalization refers to the emergence of a global economy which is characterized by uncontrollable market forces and new economic actors such as transnational corporations, international banks, and other financial institutions". Blackmore (2000, p. 133) described it as "increased economic, cultural, environmental, and social interdependencies and new transnational financial and political formations, with both homogenizing and differentiating tendencies".

Globalization is a product of the emergence of a global economy. The process of globalization is seen as blurring national boundaries, shifting solidarities within and between nation-states, and deeply affecting the constitution of national and interest group identities (Morrow & Torres, 2000). The term "globalization" is generally used to refer to a complicated set of economic, political, and cultural factors. As a result of expanding world trade, nations and individuals experience greater economic and political interdependence (Wells *et al*, 1998). New communication technologies that facilitate expanded world trade as well as cultural interaction are considered the determinants that lead to the emergence of globalization. It is widely believed that globalization is transforming the political, economic and cultural lives of people all around the world, whether in the developed countries or developing ones, and that globalization is driving a revolution in the

organization of work, the production of goods and services, relations among nations, and even local culture.

The Impact of Globalization on Education

The potential effects of globalization on education are many and far-reaching, due to its scale and nature. Because the main bases of globalization are knowledge intensive information and innovation, globalization should have a profound impact on education (Carnoy, 2002). Almost everywhere in the one world, educational systems are now under pressure to produce individuals for global competition, individuals who can themselves compete for their own positions in the global context, and who can legitimate the state and strengthen its global competitiveness (Daun, 2002).

Economic and technological globalization is challenging the nation-state in different ways. Countries differ in their response to the processes of globalization according to their size, economic and technological level, economic position in world markets, cultural composition, relationships between the state and economy (Green, 1997; Daun, 2002). Carnoy (2002) argues that analyzing how nation-states respond to globalization is crucial to the understanding of the effects of globalization on education. He posits that the approach a nation-state takes in education reform, their educational response to globalization, depends on three key factors: their real financial situation, their interpretation of that situation, and their ideological position regarding the role of the public sector in education. These three factors are expressed through the methods that a nation-state has adopted for the structural adjustment of its economy to the new globalized environment (Mok & Welch, 2003).

Globalization is having a profound effect on education at many different levels. That education has been a national priority in many countries is largely understood in terms of national economic survival in a fiercely competitive world. It is commonly recognized that the production economy is being rapidly overtaken by the knowledge economy. Many countries have taken action to enhance their competitive edge through the development of the knowledge-producing institutions and industries (Daun & Strömqvist, 2011). The development of the knowledge economy through the enhancement of skills and abilities, that is, improved human capital, has become an important agenda in many countries' educational policy (Bates, 2002). Globalization will have even greater effects on education in the future (AACSB International, 2011). Because global financial flows are so great, governments rely increasingly on foreign capital to finance economic growth. One way to attract finance capital is to provide a ready supply of skilled labor by increasing the overall level of education in the labor force.

Global competition results in an overall demand for higher skills. Daun (2002) and Suárez-Orozco (2007) argue that global competition leads to an increasing demand for higher skills in the population as a whole, and lifelong learning for all. Global competition also leads to a techno-economic shift. Such a shift results in unemployment in the short term but to a higher standard of living and higher employment in the long term. As the arrival of a global society will also herald that of a knowledge society, the role of education is to enhance a nation's productivity and competitiveness in the global environment. Bates (2002, p. 139) foresees that the challenges ahead for most education systems and their success in global

competition will depend on (i) whether they can determine the skills and attitudes required by the young and by lifelong learners, (ii) the construction of an appropriate global curriculum, (iii) the development of an appropriate technologically mediated pedagogy, (iv) the specification of the universal standards by which performance can be evaluated, and (v) the management of the system through which these achievements can be realized.

Globalization and Educational Change

Globalization has brought a paradigm shift in educational policies and administration in many countries. Under the impacts of globalization, Mulford (2002) observes that the old-fashioned values of wisdom, trust, empathy, compassion, grace, and honesty in managing education have changed into those so-called values of contracts, markets, choice, and competition in educational administration. At present, school administrators are probing more into the instrumental skills of efficiency, accountability and planning than the skills of collaboration and reciprocity. School education nowadays puts more stress on the short term, the symbolic and expediency, having the answers and sameness, than those of the past, which focused on the long term, the real and substantive goals and objectives, discretion and reserving judgment, and character.

In the competitive global economy and environment, nation-states have no choice but to adjust themselves in order to be more efficient, productive, and flexible. To enhance a nation's productivity and competitiveness in the global situation, decentralization and the creation of a "market" in education have been the two major strategies employed to restructure education (Lingard, 2000; Mok & Welch, 2003). Decentralization and corporate managerialism have been used by most governments to increase labour flexibility and create more autonomous educational institutions while catering for the demand for more choice and diversity in education (Blackmore, 2000; Novelli & Ferus-Comelo, 2010). The emergence of education markets has also been central to education reform for globalization in many states. Carnoy (2002) argues that if education is restructured on market principles and based upon competitive market relations where individual choice is facilitated, education will become more efficient.

While it is true that many educational developments are due to globalization, the dynamics, complexity, and mechanism of such impacts are still not fully grasped. Martin Carnoy (1999) analyzes how globalization has been affecting education systems, directly and indirectly, and summarizes that globalization has recently brought the following major educational changes (pp. 15-17):

1. Globalization has had, and continues to have an impact on the organization of work and on the work people do. Usually this work demands a high level of skill.
2. Such demands push governments to expand their higher education, and to increase the number of secondary-school graduates prepared to attend post-secondary education.
3. Most governments are under greater pressure to increase spending on education to produce a more educated labour force.
4. The quality of education is increasingly being compared internationally. The TIMSS and PISA studies are cases in point.

5. There have been greater emphases on mathematics and science curricula, English as a foreign language and communication skills, in school education.
6. Use of information technology, such as, the use of the Internet and computer assisted instruction are becoming more common in the classroom.

In the following sections, the impact of globalization on higher education and school education will be discussed more specifically and in greater details.

Restructuring Higher Education in the Era of Globalization

There have been a variety of important social, cultural, economic, and political forces that link to the global development of higher education. Schugurensky (2003) identified (i) the globalization of economy, (ii) the 'commodification' of knowledge, and (iii) the retrenchment of the welfare state as three important forces, among others, for the changes in higher education. Globalization leads to the emergence of a knowledge economy, in which the importance of information technology and knowledge management is coming to outweigh that of capital and labour. Globalization also leads to the intensification of the transnational flows of information, commodities, and capital around the globe. That, in turn, renders both production and dissemination of knowledge increasingly commoditized. In parallel with the onset of globalization, more and more welfare states have adopted a neoliberal ideology geared to promoting economic international competitiveness through cutbacks in social expenditure, economic deregulation, decreased capital taxes, privatization and labour 'flexibilization' (Novelli & Ferus-Comelo, 2010). All these forces are implicit in a restructuring of higher education systems worldwide (Peters *et al.*, 2000; Welch & Mok, 2003).

The impacts of these forces on the change to higher education are manifest in the drastic restructuring of higher education systems, in which values, such as accountability, competitiveness, devolution, value for money, cost effectiveness, corporate management, quality assurance, performance indicators, and privatization are emphasized (Mok & Lee, 2002; Ngok & Kwong, 2003). Though nations vary widely in their social, political, cultural and economic characteristics, what is striking is the great similarity in the unprecedented scope and depth of restructuring taking place. In general, most of these changes are expressions of a greater influence of the market and the government over the university system. At the core of these changes is a redefinition of the relationships among the university, the state, and the market (Schugurensky, 2003).

Currie (1998) has been able to identify certain trends in the restructuring of higher education, in the globalizing practices in Anglo-Pacific and North American universities. These trends have important implications for the development of higher education systems in other countries in this era of globalization. These trends include (i) a shift from elite to mass higher education, (ii) the privatization of higher education, (iii) the practice of corporate managerialism, and (iv) the spread of transnational education.

There has been a shift from elite to mass higher education globally, driven by the fact that in a knowledge-based economy, the payroll cost to higher levels of education is rising worldwide. This is a result of the shift from economic production

to knowledge-intensive services and manufacturing. Rising relative incomes for more highly educated labour increases the demand for university education, pushing governments to expand their higher education (Carnoy, 2002; Maringe & Foskett, 2010).

In the face of limited resources and the rapid expansion of higher education, governments have been forced towards the privatization of higher education and corporatization of public universities. Privatization is another global trend in higher education, which means a reduction in the level of state provision, and correspondingly, the encouragement of the expansion of private provision (Lee, 2000). The underlying ideology of privatization is based on the belief that the public sector is ineffective, inefficient, and inflexible, while the private sector is deemed more effective, efficient, and responsive to the rapid changes that are needed in the globalizing world.

By corporatization, public universities are run like business corporations. The adoption of business-like approaches will result in financial cost savings; increased administrative efficiencies; and retain academic staff through the offering of competitive market remunerations (Lee, 2000). Such a global change reflects the fact that higher education institutions are increasingly required to secure additional funds from external sources and to reduce dependence on the government (Ngok & Kwong, 2003).

A unique feature of the rapid expansion of private higher education is the emergence of offshore programmes that are offered by foreign universities. The emergence of foreign-linked programmes reflects a growing trend of transnational education, which means that there is a growing volume of higher education being delivered across national boundaries. Education has become increasingly affected by commoditization. In the global context, the boundaries of how, where, and under whose authority education is carried out and certified are becoming less clear as universities internationalize their campuses, curricula, and teaching staff (Lee, 2000; Maringe & Foskett, 2010).

There are some backwash effects created from these global currents of restructuring of higher education due to globalization. First, a rapid expansion in higher education may inevitably lead to a fall in the average academic standard and performance of graduates. It is likely that the definition and establishment of quality will become the prerogative of management rather than academic professionals. When universities become more corporatized, they will be linked more to the market and less to the pursuit of truth. Intellectuals will become less the guardians of the search for truth, and administrators will assume a dominant role (Stromquist & Monkman, 2000). In this regard, norms that have traditionally been part of university life may be questioned. Stromquist and Monkman (2000) and Zajda (2010) warned that when guided by a climate of knowledge as production, the university may become indifferent to subjects dealing with ethics, social justice, and critical studies.

Globalization and School Educational Reforms

While higher education systems worldwide have been undergoing restructuring as a response to the challenges posed by globalization, school education systems inevitably have to reform also. Based on the strategies the nation-states adopted in

school educational reforms implemented in the context of globalization, The International Labor Organization (ILO) (1996, pp. 6-12) and Carnoy (1999) have been able to identify three different models of educational reforms and make a distinction between: (i) competitiveness-driven reforms, (ii) finance-driven reforms, and (iii) equity-driven reforms. The competitiveness-driven reforms are implemented in order to improve a country's competitiveness in the world market and the major strategies include decentralization, centralization, improved management of educational resources and improved teacher recruitment and training. Finance-driven reforms consist of privatization, shifting public funding from higher to lower levels of education, and the reduction of costs per student as the major strategies, while equity-driven reforms are often targeted towards groups that are neglected or are more affected by the consequence of structural adjustment programs. Different countries will adopt these models of educational reform to a greater or lesser extent according to their financial situation, culture and interpretation of globalization.

Though different nation-states may have varying perceptions of globalization and adopt different strategies in school educational reforms, similarly to the strategies in restructuring higher education described in previous sections, decentralization, marketization and choice are the major approaches seen.

The main argument for decentralization stems from the assumption that increased flexibility and control allow for a better fit between educational methods and the students served, as well as greater accountability for educational results. Decentralization is cast in the role of a reform that increases productivity in education and thus contributes significantly to improving the quality of a nation's human resources. Many schemes have been tried to achieve decentralization of school education, such as voucher plans, magnet schools, zero-based budgeting, school consultative committees and school-based management (Brown, 1990).

Decentralization in education systems is typically the legacy of the New Right's neoliberal ideology of school reform in Western countries in the early 1980s (Cooper, 1988). Both Ronald Reagan of the United States and Margaret Thatcher of Great Britain were committed to breaking the monopoly of schools and the introduction of more choice, competition and measurable results. They both believed that strong state control of schools rendered them ineffective, inefficient and not responsive enough to rapid global societal changes. Their basic beliefs were that the market is the most efficient instrument to allocate resources, that competition will motivate people to raise their standards of performance and that school improvement will not occur if they are not held accountable and given the necessary resources to do their job.

These two Governments came into office on a platform of motivating schools' internal initiatives and reducing the governments' roles in and control over education by creating competitive markets in the school system and devolving authority to schools. The New Right's language articulated in school reform is, "choice", "competition", "market mechanism" and such like. In order to promote a market mechanism in the school system and to allow schools to compete with each other, state (government) schools should be dissolved, deregulated and even "privatized" (Pang, 2002), be given the chance of self-management (Caldwell & Spink, 1988) and be accountable for their own performance. "Market" and "school-

based management” are the two prime ideological foci of the New Right’s school reforms.

When the concept of a market is applied to the school system, the notion of choice is crucial. Choice may be bi-directional in the sense that schools compete for students and students also compete for schools. The two-way competition is the driving force for both schools and students to improve and to raise their standards of performance. In the face of competition, students would strive for excellence in order to get into a “good” school, and schools would ensure they provided quality education in order to compete for the best students. When market forces are introduced into the school system, competition is created, and the quality of education will be assured effectively, efficiently and automatically.

When there is a market mechanism in the education system, schools are responsive and accountable. The right choice is to devolve the system to schools (Chapman & Boyd, 1986). School-based management (site-based management, self-budgeting and self-management are other terms coined) is the most popular form of school management reform to revitalize schools in terms of responsiveness, flexibility, accountability and productivity. When the functions of market and school-based management in schools are at full strength, the quality of education will be assured.

Implications for Further Research and Development

Though there is still no universally accepted conceptualization of globalization, what we call “globalization” has brought numerous and profound changes to the economic, social, cultural and political life of nations as well as changes in education (Pang, 2006). Globalization seems to be leading to some homogenizing tendencies, but it is also opening a space for new identities and contesting established values and norms (Stromquist & Monkman, 2000). The global flow of information and culture as well as the rapid spread of new technologies has enormous consequence for education. Globalization might entail the imposition of the concepts of competition, market, choice, decentralization and privatization on education, that is, the further infiltration by business forces into education. It might also lead to increased commoditization of education and making quality education only accessible to elite elements of society who can afford it (Kellner, 2000).

The globalization of education might involve the privileging of Western, most particularly English-language, culture in the one world. It is evident that in many places, globalization has led to greater economic and social inequality; and that educational access, whilst expanded, has also become more unequal in quality. Greater decentralization and privatization of education has generally not increased equality in educational services, rather leading to more inequality (Carnoy, 2002).

There exist dichotomous accounts of globalization in the literature, for example, (i) the relations between the global and the local; (ii) between globalization viewed as a trend toward homogenization around Western norms and culture and globalization viewed as an era of increased contact between diverse cultures, leading to an increase in hybridization and novelty; and (iii) between the material and rhetorical effects of globalization (Burbules & Torres, 2000, pp. 13-14).

There is also a question of whether globalization is a “good thing”? (Reid, Gill & Sears, 2010) Is globalization beneficial to economic growth, equality, and justice,

or is it harmful? (Zajda, 2010) Has globalization led to development or division in education, and to what extent? (Welch & Mok, 2003) The question whether globalization in its various manifestations, is bad or good for education, remains largely unanswered. There exist dichotomous accounts of globalization in the literature, for example, (i) the relations between the global and the local; (ii) between globalization viewed as a trend toward homogenization around Western norms and culture and globalization viewed as an era of increased contact between diverse cultures, leading to an increase in hybridization and novelty; and (iii) between the material and rhetorical effects of globalization (Burbules & Torres, 2000; Suárez-Orozco & Qin-Hilliard, 2004). Further research into these controversial issues should be carried out, as long as globalization continues to affect education (Roth & Gur-Ze'ev, 2007; Popkewitz & Rizvi, 2009). The challenge ahead for research on globalization in Education is not only whether progress is being made, but whether it is being made quickly enough.

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Part 1

Comparative Education & History of Education

NIKOLAY POPOV & AMRA SABIC-EL-RAYESS

WILLIAM RUSSELL ON SCHOOLS IN BULGARIA

Introduction

Ninety years ago, in the early spring of 1923, a 33-years old American professor visited Bulgaria with the goal of learning about Bulgaria's school system. He studied all aspects of Bulgaria's education: its history; broader socio-economic, political and cultural context; changes consequent to the World War I; education-related statistics; system's structure, administration and financial framework; elementary, secondary and vocational education; teacher training and their instructional approaches; and curriculum design. By the summer of 1923, he returned to the U.S. and wrote a book in which he described and analyzed everything he had seen in Bulgaria.

At the time of his visit to Bulgaria, this American scholar, William Fletcher Russell (1890–1956), was a Professor of Education, as well as the Associate Director of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University. His book, titled *Schools in Bulgaria*, was completed in the autumn of 1923 and published in 1924 as first in a series published by the International Institute of Teachers College. The International Institute was established in February of 1923 with a \$US 1 million grant from the Rockefeller Foundation (Bu, 1997). The Institute's mission emphasized the importance of providing specialized courses for foreigners; examining foreign education systems; and collaborating with foreign nations on education-related issues (Bu, 1997). No known records specify why the Institute's Director, Paul Monroe (1869–1947), sent William Russell to Bulgaria immediately after the Institute had been established. Though it is possible the educational reforms initiated by the Agrarian Party, which held power from 1920 to 1923, were of a particular interest to the Institute and its scholars focused on understanding foreign education systems.

William Fletcher Russell: Life and Career

Following in the footsteps of his father, James Russell – a well-regarded educator and former dean of Teachers College – William Russell became one of the most influential educators in the field of international and comparative education in the first half of the 20th century. In 1914, William Russell obtained his PhD from Teachers College and, within few years, became a prominent figure internationally. He traveled through Europe and taught in Japan and Siberia, as well as advised and collaborated with various governments and institutions on the issues of education

(Bigelow, 1957). Influenced by his international work, some of his publications included *Schools in Siberia* and *Schools in Bulgaria* in 1919 and 1923, respectively.

By 1923, William Russell returned to Teachers College as a newly appointed Associate Director of the International Institute and closely collaborated with his father, then the Dean of Teachers College. Succeeding his father in 1927 as the Dean of Teachers College and ensuing from his interest in foreign nations, Russell worked to promote scholarship in the arena of international education and was particularly known for his commitment to maintaining relations with the international alumni of Teachers College (Bigelow, 1957).

While serving as the Dean of Teachers College, Russell (1938) elaborated on his vision for a viable and progressive university structure. Russell was ahead of his time in that he saw higher education as inevitably moving towards a highly specialized platform that serves multiple purposes (Russell, 1943). He argued that individual schools within a university should exercise independence and flexibility in a thematic and curriculum design (Russell, 1938). Throughout his work, Russell often expressed his interest in the notion of specialization rather than uniformity within higher education and pointed to its manifestation through the emergence of different institutions within universities, such as undergraduate colleges, research centers, and professional schools. Each should be allowed to serve a different purpose, Russell argued.

In his capacity as the Dean of Teachers College, Russell delivered an Interim Report to the Trustees of Teachers College, Columbia University, on April 29th, 1943, calling for the establishment of five specialized centers that would respond to an increasingly diversifying demand for education by different sub-groups of students. Of particular interest is his call for the establishment of the *Center for Workers in International Education* that Russell envisioned as essential in preparation for the post-WWII re-establishment and re-design of the educational services across the nations notably impacted by the war. Progressive for his times, Russell's view remains relevant today as we witness proliferation of specialties and sub-specialties in every field, including that of the international and comparative education.

During the WWII, Russell (1943) did not stop at only urging Teachers College to prepare itself for the post-WWII influx of foreigners in search of new ideas and reformatory practices in education. He also pointed out that the American education could benefit from examining foreign education systems, a view that was clearly evident from Russell's paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Teachers College Alumni Association held on April 24th, 1924. Russell, then the International Institute's Associate Director, spelled out his vision for the Institute by stating:

From the earliest beginnings we have been a nation of importers. All we had at the start was brought from Europe. From time to time new ideas would arrive from abroad to be incorporated in our school system or modified. Even Teachers College began as a school for promoting manual training and practical arts, – goods which only shortly before had been received from Russia by way of Scandinavia. Later on in the period of redirection and reorganization, it was a group of young merchants of light who directed the process... Statistical method was imported from England, mental measurements from France... Teachers College is only a small illustration of the process. Any complete

account of the foreign contributions to American education would necessitate an encyclopedic work (Russell, 1924a, p. 4).

In short, Russell remains one of the key figures whose call for learning from foreign systems promoted and later helped formalize the establishment of the field we call today international and comparative education.

Book Review: *Schools in Bulgaria*

Schools in Bulgaria (1924b) is a relatively short book yet one with an abundant level of detail on Bulgaria's educational system. As the author writes:

This account of elementary and secondary education in Bulgaria is the result of several weeks of intensive study of the educational situation. It was not the original intention of the writer to publish any such account... But the changes since the war proved to be so interesting and the educational administration of the farm bloc such a curious combination of extraordinary educational insight and practical ability, that it was considered worth while to write the whole matter down (Russell, 1924b, p. vii).

The book covered a variety of issues including a thorough review of the country's economic context; administrative structure of Bulgaria's education; and the curriculum and teaching methodology as applied to the country's elementary, secondary, and vocational education. In Chapter I, Russell discussed the socio-economic context and described Bulgaria as "a nation of small landowners", "transportation and communication are poorly developed" and "the means and methods of farming are still quite primitive" (p. 5). He then moved into Chapter II where he discussed a historic emergence and evolution of education in Bulgaria by pointing to the country's past tendency to educate through schools established and managed locally. He also noted that it was only recently that the country moved towards the state-based and centralized control. In doing so, Russell contextualized what he had observed in Bulgaria by comparatively referencing the emergence of the educational systems in the U.S. and England. He noted that, "[a]s was the case in both England and America, so in Bulgaria, all Bulgarian schools were founded and supported by generous individuals, wealthy benefactors, parish communities and various cultural organizations" (p. 9). On several occasions, Russell specifically pointed to descriptions or provided citations of school rules, regulations, curricula and syllabuses to make the content more relatable to its readers. Russell also wanted to relate his overall vision of the Bulgarian school system to the American readers who likely had no prior exposure to any substantive research on the educational setting in Bulgaria. As he started to share his observations on Bulgaria's schools, Russell was explicit in his intent to target the American audiences by sharing a set of short terminological definitions "which will give to the American reader the clearest idea of the Bulgarian educational situation" (p. ix).

While Chapters I and II are largely descriptive, in Chapter III Russell reflects on the post-WWI changes in Bulgaria's educational system. Russell demonstrated his in-depth knowledge of the political, social and educational changes that transpired during the Agrarian Party's rule. He was fascinated with the level of determination with which the Agrarian Party leaders introduced educational reforms in Bulgaria:

They did not believe that the salvation of Bulgaria would come from any magic panacea, nor could any good come from a philosophic or communistic socialism. Hard work, joyful labor, sobriety, health, thrift, conservation, education, discovery of national resources, and the simple life were the keywords of this party... They were diamonds in the rough. But they came with the idea of having an end of idle talk... They were frankly partisans. They ruled with a rod of iron. Their stern measures eventually led to their downfall; but so far as education is concerned, is extraordinarily interesting to see people in charge of schools who have new ideas which they firmly insist upon putting into school-room practice without endless talk and discussion (pp. 13-14).

As he transitioned into Chapter IV, Russell thoroughly reviewed the administrative structure of education in Bulgaria, discussing specifics on the work and roles played by the Ministry of Education, the school inspectors, school principals and local school committees. This chapter remains one of the more detailed historic references on school administration in Bulgaria in the early 1920s. In Chapters V through VIII, Russell focused on preschool, primary, secondary and vocational education, as well as the teaching methodology employed in Bulgaria's schools at that time. While Russell clearly sought to understand Bulgaria's context and ways in which to frame various education-related issues, he was equally determined to relate his Bulgaria-specific observations to the American readership through numerous points of comparison. Russell was a comparativist, and his perspective on education in France, Germany, Russia and other European countries enabled him to insightfully examine the school system in Bulgaria.

In Chapter IX, Russell insightfully observed that the political, geographic, and cultural context is key in formulating and understanding a systemic or strategic change in education. He specifically recognized the salience of the Agrarian Party classifying educational reforms as equally important as those pursued in any other domain. In the process, Russell also acknowledged the broader value of reforms that had occurred in Bulgaria's educational system as pertinent and applicable to other nations by directly labeling Bulgaria's educational experience as "an educational experiment, the results of which may be inspected by all" (p. 89).

Russell's study on education in Bulgaria is an illustrative example of 'mono-comparison' (Popov, 2002, pp. 62-63), a case study approach focused on problems in one country with only sporadic comparisons to other countries. Russell concentrated on Bulgaria, but without the intent to methodically compare its system to that of another nation. Russell (1924b), however, did give examples, juxtapose statistical data, and make brief comparisons between Bulgaria and other countries, most often the United States.

In summary, Russell's study on Bulgaria remains historically significant for several reasons. Firstly, this was the first book on Bulgarian education that was written by an American scholar, and it is likely the first book on Bulgarian education that was written by a foreign author. Secondly, the establishment and work of the International Institute of Teachers College from 1923 to 1938, when it was closed, was key to the institutionalization of comparative education in the 1920s and 1930s. Therefore, it is of special significance to the field of international and comparative education – and particularly to the scholars in Bulgaria – that the first book of the Institute's study series was written on Bulgaria. Thirdly, the Agrarian Party's impact

on formulation of Bulgaria's education is continuously assessed by Bulgarian historians, so Russell's work – as that of an American scholar with extensive exposure to the international context – is of a unique value in improving broader understanding of this particular era in the development of Bulgaria's education and beyond.

Conclusion

In his capacity as the Associate Director of the International Institute (1923–1927) and Dean of Teachers College (1927–1949), William Russell's engagement with Bulgaria's education continued following his publication of the book on the country's schools. Several Bulgarian scholars visited both Teachers College and International Institute in the second half of the 1920s and the 1930s (Popov, 1999). In celebration of the University's 50th Anniversary (1888–1938), William Russell was awarded an honorary doctorate by Sofia University in May of 1939. In closing, Russell was a visionary who not only made a significant and historic contribution to our current understanding of Bulgaria's educational system, but his push for the international research and examination of foreign education systems helped validate a need for the emergence and increasing institutionalization of the growing field of international and comparative education.

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CHARL WOLHUTER**PROLEGOMENA TO AN INTERNATIONAL-COMPARATIVE EDUCATION RESEARCH PROJECT ON RELIGION IN EDUCATION****Abstract**

Despite claims that the present age is a post-religious one, evidence is not hard to find of the force of religion in the lives of individual people, in societies and in national and world affairs. From the inception of schools millennia ago, religion and education have been closely entangled. The past fifty years witnessed momentous changes regarding policies on the relation between religion and education. However, all these have been by-passed by the Comparative Education research agenda. In response to this lacuna, the author outlines the planning for an international comparative education research project that is about to commence, and in which conference delegates are invited to participate.

Introduction

Despite claims that the present world is a post-religious world, evidence is not hard to find of the force of religion as a factor in the lives of people and of societies. The challenge of finding an appropriate relation between education and religion also remains unresolved. This paper commences by providing evidence of the force of religion in the world of today. Secondly, the main challenges relating to the relation between education and religion are explained. In view of these momentous challenges and of the persistence of religion as a factor in modern society, the low visibility of the subject of religion in education on the agenda of Comparative Education is disturbing. The author is part of an international research project into certain aspects of religion in education. The paper ends with the outline of the agenda for this research project, and with an invitation to conference delegates to participate in the proposed research.

The persistence of religion as a factor in twenty-first century society

A large percentage of the global population still professes to be religious. In a recent survey in 230 countries, for example, 84 percent of the participants declared that they adhered to some or other organized religious grouping (Pew Forum on Religious and Public Life, 2012). Even though those without any affiliation to a organized religious grouping amount to around 1.1 billion people, thereby constituting 16 percent of the global population, making it the third largest religious grouping after Christianity and the Islam, many of those in this category are not atheists or agnostic; 68 percent of the people in the USA who do not belong to any organized religious grouping, for instance, still believe in the existence of God (*Ibid.*; cf. also Butler-Bass, 2012).

Unsavory incidents of an inter-religious nature frequently raise their head in national and global politics. While 9/11 in the USA comes to mind in this regard, it was not an isolated case. The recent birth of South Sudan was prompted by *inter alia*, religious differences and violent friction between the predominantly Muslim

North and the predominantly Christian South of the erstwhile state of Sudan. Last year, violence was visited upon Westerners and Christians (for instance, the assassination of the American ambassador in Libya) in Libya, Palestine and elsewhere as a result of the production of a cinema film which adherents of the Islam religion felt to be a vilification of and an insult to their religion. Respected analyst, S.P. Huntingdon, in his publication *The Clash of Civilizations and the Remaking of World Order* (1996), portrayed the world after the end of the Cold War as a place where eight civilization blocs would be set up against one another. Each of these civilization blocs has a very clearly visible religious base: the Protestant cum Catholic North-American-Western European bloc, the Christian-Orthodox-Eastern European bloc, the Islamic Middle-East and Northern African bloc, the Hindu South Asia bloc, the Confucian East-Asian bloc, the Shinto Japanese and the Sub-Saharan Africa bloc (each with a unique, though complicated religious pattern).

Religion and education

With religion being such a strong force in the lives of individuals and also in the dynamics of societies and the world order, it comes as no surprise that religion and education are, as they have always been, intimately involved with each other. During the largest part of the history of humankind, (public) schools were openly based on certain religious ground motives, and they all had a particular religious mission. According to the best evidence, schools came into being for the first time by around 3 000 BC, shortly after the innovation of writing, with the purpose of training scribes, i.e. professionals with the dual function of administering the state and presiding over organized religion (Bowen, 1981: 1). According to Yehudi Cohen (1970) in his theory on the origin of schools, the function of these early schools was to teach scholars to read and write so that they could become the religious leaders as well as the administrators of the civil service. The final goal of schooling was to ensure the integrity of state. This entanglement between organized religion, political structures and education remained in place through the ages. In the Middle Ages, for example, the only available schools in the Holy Roman Empire (with its twin structures of religion and politics, right up to the positions of the Pope and the Emperor) were church schools, Cathedral schools and monastic schools. This relationship between religion and education continued after the introduction of mass public primary school systems in the nineteenth century in the states of Western Europe and North America as well as during the spread of missionary schools and colonial primary schools in the extra-Western parts of the world (*cf.* Wollhuter, 2011).

While it would be easy, and not devoid of any truth, to portray public schools as places where the dominant religion of the state is foisted upon the populace as part of schools' function to ensure the political hegemony of the state (this is an interpretation of Cohen's hypothesis, a favorite among proponents of conflict paradigms such as that of cultural reproduction or classical Marxism), this is at best an incomplete truth. The presence of religion in schools should be viewed and judged in the light of all the different functions of religion in human and social life, as well as of the nature and aims of education. The functions of religion in human and social life are to give meaning and purpose to life and to the world, to create a common ethical system in society, and to provide support in handling the demands

and challenges of life and of the world (Prouix, 2007: 6). If education is conceptualized as the guiding of the educand to adulthood (to live a meaningful life as an independent adult), then religion becomes a valuable (as far as the religious educator is concerned, even an indispensable) element of the education project.

Be it as it may, after centuries, even millennia, of schools having had a mono-religious ethos and mission, this model became untenable by the second half of the twentieth century - for a number of reasons. These include, firstly, the rising creed of Human Rights. The experience of the Twentieth Century, especially the atrocities of the two World Wars, brought home to the international community the dangers of a disregard of human rights. After the Second World War the issue of Human Rights became internationalized, *inter alia* through the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of the member states of the United Nations (UN), followed by a host of other international conventions on human rights (South African Law Commission, 1989: 50-63). These Rights entrenched the freedom of religion and conscience as well as the right not to have any religion foisted upon the populace by the state through whatever means, including education (*Ibid.*: 69). The second factor was the rise of increasingly diverse, multicultural societies, including multi-religious societies, in an age of globalization and an increasingly mobile population. A communications and technological revolution resulted in an increasingly mobile global population. One in every 33 people in the world of today is an international migrant (International Organization for Migration, 2012), as opposed to one in every 35 in the year 2000 (Steyn & Wolhuter, 2008: 16). The number of international migrants in the world rose from 79 million in 1960 to 175 million in 2000 (Steyn & Wolhuter, 2008: 16) to 214 million in 2012 (International Organization for Migration, 2012). In Finland, long regarded as an extremely closed society, the number of foreigners as recently as 1990 amounted to only 9 000; this figure shot up to 200 000 by 2008 (Swallow, 2008: 70).

States responded variously to this new context, but generally their education policies fell in with the broader trend of secularization. Put differently, an attempt was made to shift religion out of the public arena to the private space (*cf.* Van der Walt & Wolhuter, 2005). A general strategy was to terminate the tuition of confessional religious education in public schools (i.e. education in which one particular religion is taught with the aim of converting students to that religion or to inculcate the tenets of a specific religion in students) and to replace it with a subject called integrated religious education (*cf.* Loobuyck & Franken, 2011). This subject acquainted students with the major religions in the world, one of the main objectives of this approach being to develop knowledge, understanding, respect and tolerance of religious diversity (*cf.* Hagesaether & Sandsmark, 2006). Other variations of this approach include a total excision of religion from education, as was the case in France prior to the appointment of the Debray Commission in 2001.

This approach is, however, also beset with problems. For instance, it does not take into account the nature of religion and the force it represents in the lives of humans (thus rendering it impossible to gain a full understanding of religion by only presenting it in an objective, cognitive, comparative fashion from a distance). It also does not take into account the increasing individualization of religion (for a more detailed explanation of these problems, *cf.* Van der Walt *et al.*, 2010). A complete banning of religion from education, in the process following the creed of

secularization to its absolute limits, is also impossible. Religion is simply too entangled with art, literature, history, civics or whatever subject might be taught in schools (*cf.* Wolhuter, 2012). There is also the problem that the Human Rights referred to above could be interpreted to say that the student is free to decide, or that his/her parents could use their religious freedom and right over their children to decide, about the religious education and religious ethos of the school of their children (*cf.* Malherbe, 2004). Finally, there is the question as to how effective the subject of integrated religion could be in ensuring inter-religious tolerance, how the subject should be taught (method) and what exactly should be taught (curriculum) to reach this objective.

Religion and Comparative Education

Despite constituting a significant force in the lives of individuals and of society, and notwithstanding the momentous changes in policy regarding religion in education during the past half century, and despite the fact that many issues have so far remained unresolved, the Comparative Education research agenda seems to have bypassed this theme. In a recently published survey of the first fifty years of the *Comparative Education Review*, the most eminent journal in the field of Comparative Education, it has been found that in no five year period in this review did more than ten percent of articles focus on religion as a shaping force of education systems (Wolhuter, 2008: 338). Even worse, in no five year period did the effect of education on religious issues constitute more than nine percent of the focus of articles published (*Ibid.*: 339). With respect to the effect of education on inter-religious tolerance, for example, no study comparable to the classical study of Harbison and Meyers (1964) about the effect of education on economic growth exists, or to the many studies on the effect of education on population growth (*cf.* Coetzee, 1990), or to the massive IEA cross-national study on civic education.

Invitation to participate in an international-comparative research project on religion and education

Inspired by *inter alia* the lacunae described above, the author and two colleagues have commenced with an international comparative research project on religion and education, the first leg of which will be to conduct research on the effect of education, in particular religious education, on inter-religious tolerance. At this stage there are participants from South Africa, the Netherlands, Estonia and Greece, and also expressions of interest from Australia and Singapore. Delegates at the conference are invited to participate in this research project.

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PERSPECTIVES ON TOLERANCE IN EDUCATION FLOWING FROM A COMPARISON OF RELIGION EDUCATION IN ESTONIA AND SOUTH AFRICA

Abstract

The question that prompted this investigation into religion education (RE) in Estonia and in South Africa was whether two countries from such totally different parts of the world, with such vastly different populations and cultures though with somewhat parallel histories, had tackled the same or similar problems regarding the provision of RE in their schools, particularly with respect to the matter of tolerance in diverse societies, and in which ways the solutions they came up with agree with or differ from each other. The question was premised by the assumption that people are the same the world over, and that their problems regarding the provision of RE in schools and the quest for (inter)religious tolerance might be roughly the same, of course depending on the prevailing local and historical circumstances. While the upshot of the comparison itself will be available for discussion during the conference presentation, the purpose of this paper will be to present and discuss some of the parallels, resemblances and differences with respect to RE and the issue of (inter)religious tolerance, and to tentatively advance reasons for what has been observed and concluded. At least five (5) themes pertaining to (inter)religious tolerance that emerged from the comparison will be tabled for discussion: intolerance and state domination - societies in transition; diversity an asset, tolerance and nation.

Some parallels

A study of the education histories of the two countries reveals a number of parallels.

Both countries in transition

Christianity was accepted in **Estonia** in the 13th century (European Studies on Religion and State Interaction, 2012). Since the Reformation in the 16th century, the Lutheran church played a leading role, and the network of public schools that emerged by the end of the 17th century was closely associated with that church (Schihalejev, 2012: 2). No fundamental changes took place in the education system under Russian rule from the beginning of the 18th century (European Studies on Religion and State Interaction, 2012). After independence from Russia in 1918, however, RE was excluded from primary schools, but was retained as a voluntary subject in secondary schools. After protests and a referendum in 1923, RE was re-introduced in all schools as an inter-confessional and optional subject. Although it was possible to opt out from RE, almost all the pupils took the subject until it was banned in 1940 by the authorities of the Soviet occupation. From then onwards, atheistic ideology was statutorily enforced in Estonia, with the result that religion was shifted into a very deep private sphere (Schihalejev, 2012: 2).

In August 1991, Estonia became independent from the Soviet Union, and its new constitution guaranteed freedom of religion (European Studies on Religion and State Interaction, 2012). The teaching of religion (RE) once more became officially possible in schools (Valk, 2012: 1). The ensuing debate resulted in the introduction of RE in schools as an optional / voluntary non-confessional subject (Schihalejev, 2012: 6-7; Schreiner, 2005: 5). By the late 1990s, RE was taught in approximately 100 out of the 730 public schools, mostly in primary classes and at the upper secondary school level (Valk, 2012: 1; Schreiner, 2005: 5).

Regarding **South Africa**: Although the indigenous peoples of Southern Africa were religious in their traditional ways, they only began to Westernise and convert to Christianity from the 15th century onwards. Colonisation from 1652 onwards, coupled with Christian missionary work, led to the large-scale Christianisation of the people of Southern Africa. British domination from the beginning of the 19th century brought no change in this. After 1652, schools in South Africa were intended to prepare (especially White) children to become fully fledged members of the (Reformed) Christian churches. Both Catholic and Reformed Missionary education (i.e. for Black and Coloured children) had the purpose of converting people to the Christian religion and to prepare children to become literate members of the church.

On 31 May 1910, South Africa became independent from Great Britain. Because of the traditional intertwinement of state and religion, including the church, there was no strict separation between state and church. The four provinces of which the new Union consisted were each allowed to offer RE as before Union, and missionary education was continued by the churches as before. This situation prevailed until 1967, when the National Party recast RE to suit the ideals of Christian-national education for Whites. (Non-Christians could apply for exemption from attending RE classes in state schools.) Schools for Blacks, Coloured and Indians were allowed to offer their own forms of RE, but were tacitly expected to offer Christian RE. Although the theory and practice of Christian-national education were attacked by its opponents, mainly because of its Afrikaner and apartheid links, things did not come to a head before the early 1990s. RE in public schools was neither intended to be inter-confessional nor optional. Christian indoctrination (in the form of Christian-national RE) was a constant possibility. RE was Christian inter-denominational but not inter-confessional (Giliomee, 2012: 75).

The *Bantu Education Act* (no. 47) of September 1953 made education for blacks an integral part of 'separate development', and left the missionaries, who had until then controlled almost all schools for Africans, in a dilemma: either to hand over their schools to the newly-created Department of Bantu Education or to keep them under missionary control without government subsidies (Blumfield, 2008). Many of these schools opted to remain independent church schools. In 1963, Christian-national education (CNE) was extended to the so-called Coloreds by the *Colored People's Education Act* (1963) (Blumfield, 2008). In the same year, the *Education Act* of 1963 removed Colored Education from the Provincial and Government departments, vesting it in a Division of Education in the Department of Colored Affairs. Schools were tacitly expected to offer (Christian) RE. In 1965, CNE was extended to Indians by the *Indian Education Act* of 1965. Two years later, the *National Education Policy Act* (39 of 1967) was legislated. For the first time, the

central government laid down a comprehensive education policy to be followed for Whites in all four provinces. The Act stipulated that Christian RE should be offered in all schools for Whites, and that non-Christians may apply for exemption. Regulation R1192 of 20 June 1975 laid down that religious instruction based on the Bible was to be a compulsory subject for student teachers, though exemption could be granted on the grounds of religious conviction (Blumfield, 2008).

After the demise of apartheid, South Africa became a country with a democratic Government in 1994. The situation described above remained in place until 1996, when the *South African Schools Act* (Act 84 of 1996) was promulgated. This Act brought an end to CNE, and to the compulsory Christian RE in state schools. Like Estonia, South Africa has since been a country in transition.

The new RE Policy promulgated in 2003 relegated confessional religion education to religious institutions and parental homes. Religion / Religious Education may now be offered in only two forms in schools: religious observances and formal, academic Religion Studies as a school subject. RE is taught in practically all public schools in accordance with the 2003 Policy. However, some schools still teach confessional (Christian) RE, in contravention of the 2003 Policy. The post-2003 situation has shifted confessional or sectarian religion to the deep private sphere of the parental home and the church, mosque and synagogue.

Reform issues

In **Estonia**, the legal sources describing the relationship between Church and State are national law (the Constitution of the Republic of Estonia and acts which regulate the freedom of religion), international law and the decisions of the courts about fundamental freedom and rights. Article 40 of the Constitution guarantees *freedom of religion* (European Studies on Religion and State Interaction (b), 2012).

The Education Act (RT 1, 1992, 12, 192) states the following as the *general goals of education*: to create favourable conditions for the development of personality, family and the nation; to promote the development of ethnic minorities, economic, political and cultural life in Estonia and the preservation of nature in the global economic and cultural context; to teach the values of citizenship and to set up the prerequisites for creating a tradition of lifelong learning nation-wide (Official Website Estonia, 2012).

The restoration of independence in the early 1990s *presented a new opportunity for RE*. The interrupted tradition of RE stood between several forces: its historical roots; textbooks for confessional RE translated from Finnish and also doubts about the need for any RE in the minds of many people (Schihalejev, 2012: 6-7). Developing RE in the Post-Socialist period after 50 years of atheistic propaganda remains a challenging task (Valk, 2012: 1). Estonia remains a Christian shaped country, but only 23 % of the population is members of Christian Churches. 11 % of the population belongs to the Estonian Evangelical Lutheran Church and about 10 % to the Orthodox Church. Other religious communities are much smaller (Roman Catholics, Baptists, Jews, Methodists, Muslims, Buddhists and others) (European Studies on Religion and State Interaction (b), 2012). **This diversity draws our attention to the issue of religious tolerance in Estonia.**

With respect to **South Africa**: Its new Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) entrenches *freedom of religion, belief and opinion* (Art 15). *The South African*

Schools Act, No.84 of 1996, does not state any *general goals of education*, but provides as follows regarding religious observances: "Subject to the Constitution and any applicable provincial law, religious observances may be conducted at a public school under rules issued by the governing body if such observances are conducted on an equitable basis and attendance at them by learners and members of staff is free and voluntary." (Art 7.)

The advent of democracy presented the new Government with new challenges with respect to RE. The main questions were: (a) how to eradicate the Christian-national education past that had been in force from 1967 to 1994? (b) How to bridge the deep religious, cultural, political, ethnical and racial divide that existed among South Africans at the time? (c) How to promote the values of the 1996 Constitution, among other basic human rights, including tolerance of religious and other differences? (d) How to formulate a Policy on Religion in/and Education that would be acceptable to most South Africans?

After many deliberations, the Minister of Education proclaimed the present *Policy of Religion in Education* in 2003. This Policy is in line with the Constitution, the Schools Act and the *Manifesto on Democracy, Values and Education* of the Department of Education in 2001. Stipulations were made for accommodating religious observances in public schools. A new curriculum was designed for the new school subject known as Religion Studies, which is the academic (comparative) study of religions. Proselytizing is not allowed and no special emphasis is placed on any specific religion. The legacy of the apartheid regime has made people distrustful of the abuse of religion for political purposes. This could be the reason why South Africans have quietly acquiesced when confessional religion was banned from the public sphere in terms of its new Constitution (Act 108 of 1996), its latest Policy on religion in schools (2003) and its Schools Act (Act 84 of 1996).

Just as in Estonia, people wish to find their place in the pluralistic world by themselves. South Africa has never experienced a hiatus in the teaching of RE, but is nevertheless facing serious challenges. There are still two unresolved issues: (a) should confessional RE indeed have been banned from public schools, and (b) what should be the nature of RE in a modern secularised and pluralistic society? Although 70% South Africans are nominally Christians, only a small percentage regularly attends church. The remaining percentage is made up of Muslims, Hindus, Jews and indigenous religions. **This diversity also draws our attention to the issue of religious tolerance in South Africa.**

Tolerance issues that emerge from the comparison of the two systems

Intolerance and state domination; societies in transition

Both countries and their education systems went through periods of religious (and other forms of) intolerance and state domination (Estonia – colonisation; Communism, 1940-1991; South Africa – colonisation; apartheid, 1948-1994). However, both seem to have come triumphantly through those tribulations, and can today be regarded as commendable examples of how religious and other forms of diversity in their populace should be managed. This does not mean, however, that they have resolved all their problems. They both remain societies in transition. After

much trial and error, the two countries – quite independently from each other – came up with the following agenda for solving the problem of diversity and difference.

Diversity an asset, tolerance and nation building

Both countries have come to the realization that diversity is an asset which should be cherished and for which provision has to be made, also in the context of RE. In order to deal with their respective religiously diverse populations, Estonia already from 1917 onwards, and South Africa only as recently as 1996, regarded RE as a means for uniting learners from religiously widely differing backgrounds. Both regard religion education as an instrument to help people live together (*modus vivendi*) in a pluralistic and democratic society. As the Open Society Institute for South East Europe (2004: 11) correctly observed, there are several ways of promoting (inter-) religious tolerance:

- Learning about the main religions in the country through schooling helps to bring about cultural understanding and promotes national identity.
- Human rights conventions and international education standards are sufficient to guide national policy on religion and schooling.
- As far as a child's personal religious or spiritual development is concerned, families and religious or faith communities are responsible, not schools.
- Teaching in schools about the various main religions is necessary to increase tolerance and social cohesion.

These four points, it may be said, is an apt summary of the policy stance taken by the education authorities in South Africa.

Recognition of human rights

To reach the aim of *modus vivendi*, both countries insisted on the recognition of basic human rights such as freedom of religion, expression, conscience and opinion (Estonia from 1917 to 1940, and again after 1991; South Africa after 1996). Both now insist on respect for religious differences. Both have come to realize that RE could contribute to nation-building and can form the basis of social justice. This means, as they both came to understand, that RE should be inclusive (Estonia from 1917 to 1940, and again after 1991; South Africa only from 1996).

Rejection of state and church domination

While both their governments are now playing an important role in promulgating legislation and policies, they both reject state domination (Estonia from 1991, and South Africa from 1996). Both countries also maintain cordial relationships with the main-stream churches and religions, but insist on a separation between state and church (which can be construed as a form of secularism); they reject the notion of a state or national church, and reject any form of church domination. Religion education may also not be used as a means to increase church membership (Estonia from 1917; South Africa since 1910).

RE an important educational instrument

Both Estonia (since 1917) and South Africa (from 1996) regard RE as an important form of education to guide people to spiritual maturity. The subject may therefore only be taught according to pedagogical principles (not state- or church-inspired principles). It should furthermore only be controlled by pedagogical authorities. This finding chimes with an observation by Schreiner (2005: 3): “In many countries ... there has been a development from a confessionally oriented approach to a non-confessional one... (...) Nowadays RE as a subject in schools is taught chiefly in line with the criteria of general education. It is understood as learning about religion (knowledge based) and learning from religion (based on the experience and existential questions of the students)”. In Estonia as well as in South Africa, the authorities have rejected the model of “education into religion” (introducing pupils into a specific faith tradition) and favoured the models of “education about religion” (knowledge about various religions) and “learning from religion” (giving learners the opportunity to consider different answers to major religious and moral issues to help them develop their own views in a reflective way) (Schreiner, 2005: 1).

Didactical aspects

As far as didactical aspects are concerned, the two systems seem to have accepted the following principles. RE in the schools should cover all the main world religions, and should instil dialogical skills and tolerance. Not only should intolerance be rejected, but inter-religious tolerance should be actively promoted (Estonia from 1917 to 1940, and again after 1991; South Africa after 1996). RE should furthermore be inter-confessional (Estonia after 1991) or non-confessional (South Africa after 2003), learners should have the right to opt out (Estonia from 1917 to 1940, again after 1991; South Africa since 1910); there is no place for indoctrination, and it should be offered in public schools wherever possible.

Conclusion

The histories of Estonia and South Africa show such a number of remarkable resemblances that a comparison of the two countries in terms of culture, religion, religion studies / religious instruction, society and diversity has been quite viable. They even share dark periods of state and foreign domination, and some of their key dates broadly coincide. Although they are geographically far apart, and as far as could be established, had no relations, they seem to have struggled with much the same set of problems regarding the provision of RE in their schools. The comparison brought a number of rather clear-cut principles regarding inter-religious tolerance to the surface.

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PERSPECTIVES ON TOLERANCE IN EDUCATION FLOWING FROM A COMPARISON OF RELIGION EDUCATION IN MEXICO AND THAILAND

Abstract

This paper investigates religion education (RE) in Mexico and Thailand – two countries from different parts of the world with vastly different populations and cultures. We wanted to learn whether they had tackled similar problems regarding the provision of RE in their schools, particularly with respect to the matter of tolerance in diverse societies, and in which ways the solutions they came up with agree with or differ from each other. We assumed that people are the same the world over, and that their problems regarding the provision of RE in schools and the quest for (inter)religious tolerance might, depending on the prevailing local and historical circumstances, be roughly the same. The paper presents and discusses some of the parallels, resemblances and differences with respect to RE and the issue of (inter)religious tolerance. It ends by tentatively advancing the following four stages of state-church relations that could help us understand (inter)religious tolerance in education: state-church tension and disagreement, state-church mistrust, state-church truce, and recognising the need for religious tolerance.

Historical Background

Contemporary Mexico is rooted in Roman Catholicism which arrived in the territory with the Spanish conquistadors in the 16th Century. Many struggles between state (supported mainly by anti-clerical Liberals; secularists) and the Church (driven mainly by politically active clergy and pro-clerical Conservatives) ensued (APEC, 2012).

Liberals and Conservatives alternated in power during the period from the War of Independence (1810-21) to the Mexican-American War (1846-48). A liberal constitution (1857) guaranteed basic freedoms. It deprived ecclesiastical orders of the right to own land, and secularized education. In response, conservative forces launched a coup that devolved into a civil war and finally to a clergy-supported occupation by French forces under Maximilian I (1864-67). The final decades of the 19th century were marked by the autocratic rule of Porfirio Díaz who allowed the Church and clergy to expand their temporal powers despite the restrictions imposed by the 1857 constitution (Berkeley Centre, 2012).

In 1917, a new Constitution reaffirmed the liberal principles of the 1857 document, but went further in restricting the authority and influence of the Church (Berkley Centre, 2012). After the uprising of 1929, the state (represented by the Institutional Revolutionary Party) and the Church reached a tacit agreement by which the former reduced its control over Church activities and the latter refrained from criticizing the Government. This situation remained in place until the 1980s, although the National Action Party and its socially conservative positions received tacit support from the Church from the 1930s on (Berkley Centre, 2012).

In 2011, Mexico's Senate approved constitutional reform that paved the way for religious education in the country's public schools. The reform (following Pope

Benedicts XVI's visit to the country) is widely seen as a victory for the Catholic Church in Mexico (Univision News, 2012). Article 24 of the Constitution used to grant everyone in the country the right to pick and exercise the religion of their choice. It now also grants people the right to "uphold their ethical convictions, freedom of conscience and religion".

Senators also changed Article 40 of the Constitution so that it described Mexico as a "secular nation", proof, according to certain politicians, that their parties respected the separation of Church and State in Mexico (Univision News, 2012).

Beginning with the colonial period, education has always been the duty of the Catholic Church. After 1810, a public education system was begun out of concern that the Church was imposing its values and beliefs on education and schools. Religious influences of any sort were banned in the public primary schools (grades one through six). The federal government controlled the curriculum and provided the textbooks for primary schools (APEC, 2012). However, the Salinas administration's 1991 proposal to remove all constitutional restrictions on the Roman Catholic Church, approved by the legislature the following year, allowed for a more realistic church-state relationship (Countrystudies.us, 2012).

In Thailand, Buddhism first appeared during the 3rd century B.C. It soon gained wide acceptance because its emphasis on tolerance and individual initiative complemented the Thai's sense of inner freedom. King Ramkhamhaeng (1275-1317 A.D.) established Theravada Buddhism as Thailand's dominant religion. In 1360, Ramathibodi (r.1351-69) declared Theravada Buddhism as the official religion and compiled a legal code based on Hindu legal texts and Thai custom that remained in effect until the late nineteenth century (Religion: Thailand, 2012). Although Buddhism became the primary and state religion, Thais have always subscribed to the ideal of religious freedom. From 1972-1992, the new Government, led by Prime Minister Thanin Kraivichien (an anticommunist), introduced Military Rule that was more repressive in many ways than the earlier military regimes. Censorship continued, and the regime tightly controlled labour unions and purged suspected communists from the civil service and educational institutions (Library of Congress, 2012).

Muslims comprise Thailand's largest religious minority. Islam is said to have been introduced to the Malay Peninsula by Arab traders and adventures during the 13th century. Thailand's Muslims enjoy state support and are free to teach and practice their religion according to their own tenets. Christianity was introduced to Thailand by European missionaries in the 16th and 17th centuries (U.S. Dept. of State, 2005). From the mid-sixteenth century Thailand opened up to French Catholic influence until the mid-seventeenth century when it was curtailed, and the country returned to a strengthening of its own cultural ideology (Religion: Thailand, 2012).

Tolerance issues

In Mexico, the 1980s and early 1990s witnessed a notable shift in religious affiliation and in church-state relations in Mexico. Although Mexico remains predominantly Roman Catholic, evangelical churches have dramatically expanded their membership. Dozens of evangelical denominations have engaged in strong recruitment efforts since 1970. Protestants of "evangelical" affiliation -- the terminology used by Mexican census officials -- surged from 1.8 percent in 1970 to

3.3 percent in 1980 and to 4.9 percent in 1990. The Mormons also reported that membership surged from 248,000 in 1980 to 688,000 by 1993 (Countrystudies.us, 2012).

Motivated in part by the evangelical challenge, the leadership of the Roman Catholic Church has sought greater visibility, speaking out on sensitive public issues and ignoring constitutional bans on clerical involvement in politics. These actions ultimately led in 1992 to dramatic constitutional changes and a resumption of diplomatic relations with the Vatican (Countrystudies.us, 2012). These negotiations resulted in amendments to the Constitution that granted greater freedom to churches (Berkley Centre, 2012). The 1992 Constitution provided that education should avoid privileges of religion, and that one religion or its members might not be given preference in education over another. Religious instruction was prohibited in public schools; however, religious associations were free to maintain private schools, which received no public funds.

The 2001 Constitution explicitly banned discrimination based on religious affiliation. Under the seven decades of PRI rule in Mexico, priests and other religious officials were not allowed to vote until after 1992. However, broadly speaking, the Constitution provided for freedom of religion, and other laws and policies contribute to the generally free practice of religion. The Government generally respected religious freedom in practice; however, there were some restrictions at the local level. There was no change in the status of respect for religious freedom by the Government in the period 2009-2010 (UNHCR The UN Refugee Agency, 2010).

Incidents of societal abuses or discrimination based on religious affiliation, belief, or practice usually occurred in small rural communities in the south. Government officials, non-governmental organizations, and evangelical and Roman Catholic representatives agreed that these conflicts were often attributable to political, ethnic, or land disputes related to the traditional practices and customs of indigenous communities (UNHCR The UN Refugee Agency, 2010).

The emphasis on homogeneously implementing national schooling and curriculum standards without consideration of local context has created a situation where the tension between national standards and local needs could affect the quality of students' education. The educational possibilities for children of indigenous ancestry are particularly at risk. National versus local is a significant topic in Mexico, as is the issue of diverse ethnic groups and the extent to which students will be well served by national curriculum standards (Cisneros-Cohernour, Moreno & Merchant, 1999).

In broad terms, we may distinguish three main periods of multicultural education in twentieth and twenty first century Mexico: the post-revolutionary period of "classical" *indigenismo* (until the eighties), the period of ethnic mobilization and indigenous multiculturalism (during the eighties and nineties) and the current period of official inter-culturalism (since the turn of the century) (Dietz, 2012: 3).

Historically, the relationship between the Mexican state and the private education sector has comprised conflicts and disagreements, as well as tolerance and concurrence. Its complex history is permeated by the ideological alternatives of the Mexican state during the 20th century, the cyclical dilemma between centralism and

federalism, governmental definitions of a national educational project, and by the diversity of political, normative and practical actions (Rodriguez & Ordorika, 2011: 9).

In Thailand, the relationship between missionaries and the people was sometimes good, and sometimes bad. It depended, first of all, upon the missionaries themselves, in particular, on how much attention they paid to the customs of those to whom they preached the Gospel. We have inadequate evidence with regard to this matter, because much of the information on it was written by Christians, especially by missionaries themselves. Generally they praised themselves and blamed others. Secondly, the persecution of Roman Catholicism was due to political causes, for example, war between the Siamese and the Spaniards in the course of the first quarter of the seventeenth century. Diplomatic relations were not reopened with European nations until the nineteenth century. During the crisis that ensued, especially while the French soldiers were leaving, the French missionaries and their converts were imprisoned. Finally, persecution recurred in 1769 and 1782, when King Tak Sin went through a spell of insanity. A Thai church history says that one day the King stayed in the temple and told the people that he was a god who could ascend to the heaven. As the missionaries and the Christian converts did not believe in this, he did not permit their existence. A number of Christians were killed; some of them were burnt alive. However, persecutions only made them stronger in their faith. In comparison, persecution of Protestantism was only of brief duration. Persecution usually occurred due to two main factors, firstly, the people wanted to retain their customs and way of life; secondly, they wanted to preserve their religion. It was understood that anyone who did not care about the nation's social customs was a rebel against Thai society, and had to be punished accordingly (Saad, 1975: 22-27).

Daniel McGilvary (1828-1911), an American Presbyterian missionary who played an important role in the expansion of Protestantism in Northern Siam, realized that the Gospel could not be proclaimed unrestrictedly unless religious tolerance were promulgated (Saad, 1975: 22-27). The High Commissioner helped him prepare a petition to the King for a pronouncement on religious tolerance. Fortunately, a favourable reply came from King Chulalongkorn, granting all of his requests. A part of this edict of religious tolerance, promulgated on October 8th, 1878, says that religious and civil duties do not come in conflict. Whoever wishes to embrace any religion after seeing that it is true and proper to be embraced, is allowed to do so without any restriction, and that the responsibility for a right or wrong choice rests on the individual making the choice. All persons are permitted to follow the dictates of their own conscience in all matters of religious belief and practice. Christians, as well as missionaries of other religions, have been permitted to proclaim their respective faiths throughout the country ever since (Saad, 1975: 22-27).

Tolerance issues flowing from the comparison

The histories of both Mexico and Thailand demonstrate the tensions that often exist between the state (political authorities and powers) on the one hand, and religious entities such as churches, on the other. The history of Mexico is a record of ongoing conflict and tension between state (secularists, liberals) and the Roman Catholic Church (clergy, conservatives). While the relationship has always remained

tense and uneasy, at times it became more realistic in that the state entered into a form of truce characterised by a measure of tolerance of the church and religion. The basic stance of the Mexican state, however, is to restrict as far as possible church influence on schooling and education out of fear of church domination, and the imposition of the church values on the state, (public) education and the schools. The upshot of this has occasionally been the banning of RE from (public) schools and the creation of a secular society.

The actions of the Mexican state could be interpreted as a form of radical secularization, because it wished to eradicate all religious influences from society in general. The latter did not fully materialize, however, since the state has recently (2001) been persuaded to recognise freedom of religion, convictions and conscience. Since 1992, the official churches have also enjoyed greater freedom. It has paved the way for the introduction of RE in the public schools, which was hailed as a victory for the churches and religion.

Mexico is predominantly Christian, with the Roman Catholic Church as the most prominent denomination. Other denominations have also grown in numbers, particular the evangelicals. This diversity has prompted the state in 2001 to ban all discrimination based on religious affiliation and to insist, generally, on the free practice of religion. Despite this measure, religious intolerance occasionally still occurs at local level, albeit because of political, ethnical or economic reasons. Mexico currently finds itself officially in a period of multi-culturalism of which multi-religionism forms a major facet.

Thailand has similarly experienced extended periods of tension between state and organised religion, as demonstrated by the conflicts between the indigenous population and the Christian missionaries. The brief period of persecution of the Roman Catholic Church for political purposes in the 18th century is another instance of such conflict. The Christians sought a greater degree of state-sanctioned religious tolerance, and their wish was granted towards the end of the 18th century. Since then, freedom of religion, conscience and a culture of no restrictions on religious people have been the order of the day. Why the initial conflict between state and religion / churches did not continue up to this day, as has been the case in Mexico, remains uncertain. It could, perhaps, be ascribed to the inherent tolerance and phlegmatic attitude that typify the majority religion in Thailand, namely Buddhism.

Conclusion

Although Mexico and Thailand are geographically far apart, and as far as could be established, have had no relations, they seem to have struggled with much the same set of problems regarding the provision of RE in their schools. The comparison suggested that distinguishing between the following four stages of state-church relations with regard to RE could help us understand (inter)religious tolerance: state-church tension and disagreement, state-church mistrust, state-church truce, and recognising the need for religious tolerance.

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ELIZE DU PLESSIS**DO TEACHERS RECEIVE PROPER IN-SERVICE TRAINING TO IMPLEMENT CHANGING POLICIES: PERSPECTIVE FROM THE SOUTH AFRICAN CASE?****Abstract**

Worldwide there is a responsibility of governments to provide learners with quality education to face the challenges of change. Emanating from this challenge, the Department of Basic Education (DBE) in South Africa introduces in the last decade several curriculum changes which impacted on the delivery of quality education for all. This research focuses on the question if the DBE can provide proper in-service training for teachers to comply with the challenges of the implementation of a new national curriculum: Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). The theoretical framework for this paper is based on systems theory. A qualitative research design will be employed in this paper. A selection of 15 different schools in Gauteng was used as a sample of a bigger population. Data collection consists of document analysis and semi-structured interviews exploring teachers' experiences regarding in-service training towards the implementation of CAPS. Findings revealed that CAPS is implemented prematurely and without proper in-service training.

Introduction

The role of the teacher has changed a great deal since the new South African government took office in 1994. The main concern of this paper centres on teachers who have to adapt to new challenges and policies. The researcher wants to find out how effective curriculum implementation takes place and what type of in-service training teachers receive. According to Christie (2003: 173), "it has become commonplace for members of the government to admit themselves that South Africa has excellent policies but knows nothing about implementation". The question is: Do teachers receive any in-service training, and if so, is it sufficient?

In presenting this argument, the researcher firstly attends briefly to systems theory, where after she focuses on curriculum change in South Africa and the research design. She closes with some critical findings and recommendations.

Conceptual framework

This research is predicated on a general systems theory approach. The term "systems theory" originated from the Viennese biologist, Bertalanffy's, General System Theory (GST). The system theory approach is a worldview that is based on the discipline of system inquiry. In the most general sense, system means a configuration of parts connected and joined by a web of relationships. A system is a group of interrelated, interdependent and interacting groups of activities that form a coherent whole. A system is designed to seek self-maintenance. In this process of self-maintenance a system generates creative forces within itself that enable it to

alter circumstances and, in any case, the system cannot remain healthy if it precludes the possibility of change (Cain, 1999: 15).

Systems can be opened or closed or partly both. According to the explanation of Finlay (2011: 2-3), a closed system is self-contained and is capable of having a clear boundary placed around it with regard to input and output. There is no interaction with the environment.

The school system is an open system with permeable boundaries and it functions in active equilibrium with the environment according to both internal and external inputs and outputs. Schools function within a larger context in which they exchange matter, power and information through formal and informal feedback processes. According to Finlay's (2011: 1-7) explanation, the school is an open system that depends on its environment as well as on the interactions between its component parts or subsystems. The teacher as a subsystem is a useful point of focus for attending to system malfunctions.

The external environment includes a wide variety of needs and influences that can affect the school system, but which cannot directly control it. Such influences can be political, economic, ecological, societal and technological in nature. Accordingly, teachers are being challenged by changed school systems and policy.

Curriculum change in South Africa

Since 1994, South Africa has undergone a great deal of educational change, which was necessary because of the situation inherited by the first democratic government. In 1995, the government carried out a national audit on teaching that revealed many disparities and problems. In 1997, the Department of Basic Education (DBE) launched its new curriculum policy, Curriculum 2005. In its ideology, content and pedagogical approach, this curriculum was in strong contrast to that which had traditionally been in operation. It was an outcomes-based model linked to the objectives approach in education. It drew from models operating in some highly developed countries and it sought to place the South African curriculum among the most progressive internationally. This curricular policy became a highly contested issue within South Africa (Department of Education, 2000). In 2000, the Minister of Education set up a Curriculum Review Committee. This led to a modification of the curriculum, the National Curriculum Statement (NCS), with a more "streamlined" approach. The policy and the ensuing debate caused much confusion and uncertainty. The "cascade model" of in-service education proved to be very inadequate and reached the schools in a much-diluted form. In 2000, the government published the Norms and Standards for Educators (NSE). This set out, in a broad and generic manner, the requirements of the Department of Education (DOE) in respect of the knowledge, values and skills that an educator must acquire. It represents a competence based approach to teacher education. The word "educator" is preferred to "teacher" and is aimed at encompassing all personnel with an educational role to play" (DOE, 2000). In 2002 the curriculum was reconstructed once again into a Revised National Curriculum Statement or 'RNCS' that was approved on 15 April, 2002 and implemented in 2004 (DBE, 2010: 2-7). In 2006, the DOE issued The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, a policy which, it stated, "has been a long time in preparation, and is certainly overdue given the state of our

education system.” (DOE, 2008: 27). In July 2009, the Minister of Basic Education appointed a panel of experts to investigate the nature of the challenges and problems experienced in the implementation of the NCS. During 2011 the NCS was replaced by the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (DBE, 2009, 2011; Pinnock, 2011).

What is CAPS?

CAPS is not a new curriculum, but an amendment to the NCS (Grades R – 12). It therefore still follows the requirements of the same process and procedure as the NCS (Pinnock, 2011).

There is much debate and discussion about Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) being removed, however, OBE is a method of teaching, not a curriculum. It is the curriculum that has changed (repackaged) and not the teaching method. The way the curriculum is written is now, in content format rather than outcomes format. There is one single comprehensive National Curriculum and Assessment Policy for each subject (Maskew Miller Longman, 2012: 8). CAPS will be implemented as follows:

- The Foundation Phase (Grades R - 3) and Grade 10 will be implemented in January 2012;
- The Intermediate Phase (Grades 4 - 6) and Grade 11 will be implemented in January 2013;
- The Senior Phase (Grades 7 - 9) and Grade 12 will be implemented in January 2014.

The question is if teachers are equipped to implement CAPS?

In-service training of teachers

The continuous professional training development of teachers is vital for the wellbeing of any education system.

Teachers were not trained in the previous curriculum and in September 2010 yet another policy, namely CAPS, was introduced (DOE, 2010). According to Coetzee (2012), Grade 3 teachers already missed out on CAPS in-service training during 2011.

It is widely accepted that the initial professional education of teachers is only the foundation of their professional education (Teacher education, 2010: 3). The development of professional practices is a continuing process that lasts for the duration of the career of a committed teacher. Continuous professional development is the process by which teachers reflect on their competences, keep them up to date and develop them further (Teacher education, 2010: 3).

Smith and Gillespie (2007: 216–218) state that professional development can be effective if it is designed to be of longer duration – longer-term professional development permits more time for teachers to learn about their own practice, especially if it includes follow-up training, focuses on subject-matter knowledge and includes a strong emphasis on analysis and reflection, rather than just demonstrating techniques. It should also include a variety of teaching activities and should encourage teachers from the same workplace to participate together in teaching opportunities. Furthermore, it should focus on quality and features of professional development, rather than on format or type of in-service training.

Against the background, the following methodology was deemed suitable for investigating how returning teachers cope with the new curriculum and the type of professional development they receive.

Research design

The researcher used a qualitative research design to study the issue of in-service training of teachers to implement a new policy. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001: 393), qualitative research extends the understanding of a phenomenon and contributes to educational practice, policymaking and social consciousness. Purposive and convenient sampling was used to select teachers from different schools. In purposive sampling, researchers purposefully seek typical and divergent data within easy reach of the researchers (convenient sampling) (de Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delpont, 2005: 329). A selection of 15 different schools (11 primary and 4 secondary schools) from the General Education and Training (GET) and Further Education and Training (FET) bands in schools in Gauteng was used as a sample of a bigger population.

Data were gathered by using an interview schedule to interview participants regarding in-service training they received to implement a new curriculum.

The interview schedule consisted of two sections of which the first covered biographical detail and the second information about the type of in-service training teachers received. Interviews were recorded verbatim and transcribed by the researcher. Data were grounded by hand coding for internal consistency. Comparisons were drawn to point out generalisations and contrasts. The ethical considerations adhered to by the researcher included gaining informed consent from the school principals and participants. Participation was voluntary and anonymously and confidentiality was assured. The trustworthiness was attended to through verification measures, such as comparison of the responses as they were acquired to identify and confirm specific trends and patterns in the data. The researcher aimed at reporting the participant's viewpoints, thoughts, intentions and experiences accurately by making use of direct quotations in the findings.

Findings and discussion

The results in the first section on the participants' (teachers') biographical data were as follows: The participants consisted mainly of female teachers (73%), teaching in different schools in the GED (75%) and FET (15%) bands. From the participants, many of the teachers had more than 20 years' teaching experience.

In the second section the researcher wanted general information about the type and length of in-service training regarding CAPS teachers attended.

According to the participants training varied from 2 hour workshops to 3 day workshops. Providers were curriculum advisors from district offices, book publishers companies and subject advisors. One female participant, teaching Grade 2 learners indicated that she did not attend any CAPS workshop and that she received the CAPS documents from the principal. Most of the participants indicated that their school principal didn't receive any CAPS training and if they did, it was just in the form of a meeting for the introduction of CAPS or to receive the CAPS documents downloaded on a CD.

To the question: What are the main changes from NCS to CAPS according to them? The following were some of the points mentioned: Learning areas are changed to subjects, time allocated to Home language and First additional language changed; there are specific concepts or topics for each grade. Home Language and Mathematics pass mark changed from 35% to 50% and 40% respectively. The following was stated by a Grade 10 Male teacher: "We no longer talk in terms of learning outcomes and assessment standards. Teaching is more teacher centred than NCS (which was learner centred)".

Participants were asked what is positive about CAPS? According to the participants the subject content is clearly stated for each grade. Teachers engage themselves in lesson preparations rather than a lesson plan, which also benefit the learners. There are less tasks and teacher's administration and written work reduced. It will produce learners that are able to identify and solve problems and make decisions; learners will be able to think critically and creatively. This is in line with system theory by striving towards a dominant and common goal to improve the whole education system.

To the question what is negative about CAPS, the following were stated: Subject Advisers are not involved enough during training, not enough intensive CAPS workshops has been done. No textbooks were delivered to schools yet. CAPS does not cater for learner diversity. No in-depth workshops were conducted. CAPS has been implemented prematurely as educators were not equipped with relevant knowledge. According to a Grade 3 Female teacher: "Time given to time tables are very limited - too much work to fit into one period". According to system theory schools function within a larger context and if schools do not receive proper support and training from the DOE, they can't function properly.

Participants were asked to make recommendations. The following recommendations were made by some of the participants: Workshops must be for a month and subject specific, textbooks must be delivered on time to schools, paper work must be reduced so that educators may have good contact with learners and workshops must be conducted to School Management Teams and principals for implementation and monitoring.

Conclusion

Teachers were concerned about the plethora of policies, guidelines and interpretations of policies and guidelines. Referring back to Systems theory – all stakeholders should be involved in the education system, from the DOE down to provincial, district and Subject Advisor level. Subject Advisor roles should be clarified nationally and specify the exact nature of in-classroom and school support they should provide to teachers. New documents, including the national curriculum need to be made available to all schools, district offices and to parents via print and digital media. In the absence of role clarification and training for the subject advisors, many have resorted to developing tools to help interpret policies and guidelines that have contributed to the confusion and proliferation of documents and paperwork. It became clear from the research that teachers need to be better equipped in their role as educators to implement CAPS successfully. The DBE needs to improve on their implementation plan to make sure that new policy document is implemented and doesn't stay a policy document only.

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TOWARDS UNDERSTANDING DIFFERENT FACES OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE IN DIFFERENT “WORLDS” OF ONE COUNTRY

Abstract

The legacy of South Africa's destructive history is still evident in the different worlds in which South Africans live. Quality education is compromised by violence occurring in schools and role-players must face school violence and take steps to deal with it. This can only be done if school violence is deeply understood within the various school contexts of a diverse country such as South Africa. Towards this insight a survey was conducted in 11 secondary schools from 3 provinces. The aim of this study was to understand school violence through the experiences of learners as victims and onlookers, taking into account various contextual factors within which the South African school system functions. An international questionnaire, adapted for the South African context, was administered to a non-probability sample of 690 learners. Results refute stereotypical thinking about so-called vulnerable schools, but confirm findings from other studies that large schools, in particular, are susceptible to school violence. The study indicated that both learners and staff members alike are guilty of school violence.

The South African school context

The history of colonialism followed by policies of segregation largely influenced all spheres of contemporary South Africa. While 1994 was a watershed in terms of the political landscape, the legacies of apartheid are still evident across the country. Divided into nine provinces, some provinces (e.g. Gauteng) have a more urban character and are densely populated. As a result of the stronger economies, and in the hope for better work opportunities, these provinces experience a high influx of people. Others provinces (e.g. the Eastern Cape) have a more rural character, consist largely of parts that were formerly reserved for the Bantustan, and are still struggling to overcome the disadvantages of the past (cf. Booyse, 2011a; Booyse, 2011b; le Roux, 2011a; le Roux, 2011b; Pretorius, 2007).

Different worlds thus exist within South Africa, and schools reflect these worlds. In the urban areas the high influx of learners put pressure on school supply (Pretorius, 2007: 28-29), while lack of infrastructure and overcrowded classrooms remain challenges in less privileged parts of the country (Pretorius, 2007: 29). One of the many challenges that the education system in the country is facing, is the prevalence of violence. Through the media, the South African public is informed about violent incidences taking place in our schools. Articles regularly appear in newspapers under headings such as *Our children are raping each other* (Davids & Makwabe, 2007: 1), *Schoolboy stabbed after 'bad joke'* (Fuzile, 2008: 7) and *Pupil uses mother's gun to kill tormentor, says cops* (Van Schie & SAPA, 2012: 1). While one could argue that the media often gives a twisted interpretation of a situation (Carlyle, Slater & Chakroff, 2008: 169), the problem of school violence has been confirmed in research reports from a variety of academic foci (e.g. De Wet, 2007; Marais & Meier, 2009; Rossouw & Stewart, 2008).

The problem of violence in schools

School violence is not unique to South Africa, and seems to be a problem around the globe. The world was, for instance, stunned towards the end of 2012, by the shootings at an elementary school in Connecticut, where 26 people, mostly Grade 1 learners, died (Bratu, 2012: 1). Although a great deal of research on school violence gets published, Furlong, Morisson, Cornell & Skiba (2004: 7) argue that "empirically driven knowledge about school violence [is] not keeping pace with public interest and the demand for information to inform public policy". Kollapen (2006: 2) similarly states that although role-players and researchers agree that school violence has an adverse effect on the education system, there is an "absence of reliable quantification of the extent of school violence". He expresses his concern:

[T]he environment for effective teaching and learning, for the development of mutual trust and support between learner and teacher – all so critical in the effective delivery of education is severely compromised in an atmosphere where violence reigns (Kollapen, 2006: 2).

In order to decide on meaningful steps to effectively protect the learners, the phenomenon of school violence must be profoundly and critically understood. Towards this understanding, the World Health Organisation (WHO) demarcates *violence* as follows:

[T]he intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has the likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment, or deprivation (WHO, 2002: 4).

Distinction is made between *physical, sexual, psychological violence as well as deprivation and neglect* (WHO, 2002: 5). De Wet (2007a: 77-78) views *school violence* as intentional, detrimental to the educational mission, and damaging to a culture that is supposed to be conducive to teaching and learning, while the Australian National Committee on Violence also included the phenomenon of deliberate damaging of property to the demarcation (De Wet, 2007b: 249). While the definition of *violence* by the WHO informs this paper, what sets *school violence* apart is the context of the school, its fundamental purpose, the educational activities associated with schools, as well as the school community and its property.

Although there are generic issues with regards to school violence, the particular contexts of countries need to be acknowledged. I furthermore argue that while the perspectives of teachers are important in the endeavour to understand school violence, data obtained from school learners themselves is critical to understand this phenomenon. In the light of the prevalence of violence in South African schools and acknowledging the different context within which schools in South Africa can be found, the following research question is thus posed: **What are the experiences of secondary school learners on types of violence in various South African schools?**

Research methodology

In an attempt to answer the research question, a survey was conducted. A questionnaire based on the internationally used research instrument of Benbenishty and Astor (2005) was used, but adapted for the South African school context. Taking into account the difficulty of getting people to take part in surveys in developing countries (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006: 120-121), I put together a convenient sample of 11 schools from three provinces in the country, guided by Davies (2007: 54-55) who provides guidelines for researchers to get a sample that is as good as it can be and a sample that researchers can reach with ease. The necessary permission was obtained to conduct the survey and the schools randomly selected 80 pupils who were willing to participate in the study. Of the 880 questionnaires, the schools returned 713, and I was able to use 690.

In line with the pragmatic research paradigm, I reject the notion that absolute truths about school violence exist. Empirical research can merely provide some insight into a phenomenon, and in this case the insight into the phenomenon of school violence came from the learners' perspectives. Although these perceptions are only partial insights, I took specific steps to enhance the integrity of the survey.

The integrity of the research

I requested that the Life Orientation (LO) teachers should administer the questionnaires at the schools during class time. Not only do issues pertaining to school violence fall within the scope of this learning field, but the LO class should also provide a supportive environment to deal with issues relating to school violence should any have emerged, thus avoiding harm (Strydom, 2005: 58). The questionnaires were neither marked nor numbered, and the instruction to respondents was to not write their names on the questionnaires. Respondents were free to refrain from responding to the items and return their questionnaires blank, and they had to seal the questionnaires before returning them to the teacher.

Strydom (2005: 63) points out that researchers have an ethical responsibility to respondents and to the research community to provide honest and valid research results. In the survey, I used an existing research instrument that has been used extensively in comparative international studies (Benbenishty & Astor, 2005). The questionnaire was specifically designed for learners, and I adapted it for the South African context. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of internal consistency of responses was calculated as 0.9176, which suggests a high level of internal reliability (Nunally in Santos, 1999: 2).

Analysis of data

The data was captured by an experienced person, and analysed using the StatalC11 package. The aggregated data was explored based on the mean scores of data, and significances of differences between mean scores from respondents in various contexts analysed using the Student's *t*-test and the one-way ANOVA statistics (using the *Sheffé post-hoc* test). While these are often used to infer findings, in this paper I use it to differentiate between groups without claiming to generalise the findings.

The following independent variables were used to explore various school contexts:

- Different geographical-demographical contexts:
 - School setting (urban schools and rural schools);
 - Enrolment figures (750 or fewer learners and more than 750 learners).
- Different economical-technological contexts:
 - School classification system of South Africa (poorer schools and more affluent schools).
- Different socio-political contexts:
 - Race composition of the schools (single race school, schools in which the majority of the learners are from one race with a small number of learners from other races (unequally mixed) and multiracial schools).

In the questionnaire, statements are made about school violence. Respondents had to indicate on a five-point scale whether specific acts of violence had taken place in the 12 months prior to the survey. On the scale 5 indicated that the specific violent act *always* occurs, and 1 indicated that it *never* occurs. This implies that any score of above 1 needs to be noted. Using the mentioned four types of violence as dependent variables, in the discussion that follows I will refer to differences between the means of variables as follows: *similar* differences (small differences), *notable* differences (moderate to large, but not statistically significantly) and *statistically significant* differences (95% probability). Unless indicated as a percentage, all figures given reflect the mean scores of the respondents on the variable.

Findings

The findings will be presented by first considering various acts of violence that commonly occur. The different contexts will then be discussed, by firstly referring to the perceptions of the respondents about the magnitude of the problem of school violence, followed by comparing levels of the different types of violence in the various contexts.

Violent acts commonly occurring

It seems that there are specific acts of violence commonly occurring in secondary schools. Deprivation was indicated as the most common type of violence, with a mean score of 2.2664. Certain acts that were indicated in this category to frequently occur are that learners generally steal things from each other and from teachers (77%), that respondents were the victims of theft of personal belongings (57%) and also the victims of belongings being damaged or destroyed (24%).

Psychological violence was reported to be second most common form of violence in the schools that took part in this study. The mean score of all items measuring psychological school violence is 1.8268. This includes learners being threatened and bullied at their school (68%); and teachers cursing, insulting or verbally humiliating learners (52%).

The mean score of all items measuring physical violence is 1.7716. Common forms in this category are learners getting into physical fights (67%); learners pushing and shoving each other (64%); and staff members administering corporal punishment (48%).

The mean score of all items measuring sexual violence is 1.4731, suggesting that at the schools in my sample sexual violence is, on average, a lesser problem than other forms of violence. However, when one looks at the specific acts of sexual school violence specific problems are pointed out by respondents. 43% of the respondents indicated that boys sexually harass the girls, while 20% indicated that the teachers sexually harass the learners. 2% indicated that they were sexually abused by teachers during the preceding 12 months period and 1% indicated that they were raped by a fellow learner during this period.

From the above it seems as if both learners and teachers are perpetrators in acts of school violence. The above trends are based on aggregated data from all respondents and the views of respondents from different contexts follow.

School setting

Learners from rural schools (2.7129) are slightly more concerned about the levels of school violence than those from urban schools (2.5590), yet in these two contexts, the levels of physical violence and the levels of deprivation were similar. Psychological violence is notably more prevalent in urban schools (1.8566) than in their rural counterparts (1.7900), while sexual violence seems to be moderately more common in rural schools (1.4923) than in urban schools (1.4562).

Learner enrolment

School violence is perceived by respondents at larger schools to be more of a problem (2.752) than by respondents who attend smaller schools (2.540), a difference that is statistically significant. The reporting of some types of violence concurs with this concern. The level of physical violence in larger schools (1.8286) is statistically significantly higher than in smaller schools (1.7273), while the level of psychological violence (1.8566) is notably more than in smaller schools (1.7900). However, the level of sexual violence and the levels of deprivation are similar in these two contexts.

Economical context

Respondents from more affluent schools (2.726) are statistically significantly more concerned about the problem of school violence than those from disadvantaged schools (2.474). They also reported notably higher levels of physical violence (1.7953) than the less affluent schools (1.7292). The more affluent schools reported statistically significantly higher levels of psychological violence (1.8733) than the less affluent schools (1.7444). On the other hand, the levels of deprivation and the levels of sexual violence are similar.

Race composition

In this sample, in the schools where the majority of learners are from one race and a small percentage of learners are from other races, respondents were statistically significantly more concerned about the level of school violence at their schools (2.934) than respondents from multiracial schools (2.780) and those from single-race schools (2.389). Schools with the majority of learners from one race and

a small number of learners from other racial groups experience the highest levels of physical violence (1.8035), followed by multiracial schools (1.7888) and single race schools (1.7434). Psychological violence at single-race schools in this sample (1.7486) was statistically significantly lower than the levels in the schools where the majority of learners are from one race (1.8777), and also statistically significantly lower than the levels in multiracial schools (1.9060). Sexual school violence, in the multiracial schools in this sample (1.4245), is statistically significantly lower than in the schools where the majority of learners is from one race (1.5431), and notably lower than single race schools (1.4706).

Discussion and conclusion

In this paper I considered how the various types of school violence acts are experienced by respondents from various school contexts. Physical school violence seems to be more of a problem in more affluent and larger schools. Psychological school violence is a problem particularly in larger schools, urban schools, more affluent schools, multiracial schools, and schools where the majority of learners are from one race. Although school size and the economic status of schools do not seem to influence the level of sexual school violence, in schools where the majority of learners are from one race, sexual school violence seems to be a problem. Deprivation is a common problem in all the schools that took part in the study.

In South Africa, many worlds exist and children attend school in a variety of contexts. Yet, while some statistical difference can be noted in the levels of some forms of violence in different contexts, contrary to stereotypical thinking in South Africa, and to the general message that is purported in the media (cf. Jacobs, 2012: 26-84), there are more similarities than differences with regard to occurrences of school violence in the various worlds that exist in South Africa. It is the responsibility of all stakeholders to acknowledge the problem and to comprehensively take steps to lower the levels of violence in all schools.

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TRANSFORMING LIFE SKILLS EDUCATION INTO A LIFE-CHANGING EVENT: THE CASE OF THE MUSICAL *THE GREEN CRYSTAL*

Abstract

This paper reports on how participation in a secondary school musical production, within a life skills education programme, may contribute curricularly and pedagogically towards equipping learners for meaningful, successful living in a rapidly transforming society. Using the life skills curriculum for the subject Life Orientation, and employing constructivist hermeneutic phenomenology, I compared the dialogic educative space offered by a musical production with that of an ordinary secondary school classroom context.

This comparative study suggests that secondary school musicals, as holograms of life and reality may, curricularly as well as pedagogically, be understood as practice grounds for life skills attainment (including social justice), whereas traditional classroom practice perpetuates monologism. The musical provides a space for discovering and exercising human talents, social interaction, co-responsibility, mutual and reciprocal trust and knowledge and meaning-making whereas the traditional classroom no longer seems to be able to provide a nurturing and safe practice ground for life skills.

Dialogic space

Dialogue is a tool for cultural and pedagogical intervention in human development and learning (Du Preez, 2006: 43; Rule, 2004: 1). Dialogue mediates the cognitive and socio-conventional (i.e. cultural) spaces between all relevant role-players and stakeholders in a musical production, as well as between what the learner (as participant in the musical production) knows and understands and what he or she has yet to learn, know and understand.

One of the principal functions of a secondary school musical production is to provide appropriate and adequate dialogic and educative space to allow for the creation of interactive opportunities and encounters for all relevant role-players and stakeholders (Du Preez, 2006: 44). The fact that these activities seem to develop skills more effectively in extra-curricular activities than in traditional teaching-learning spaces (like classrooms) is also emphasised in the body of scholarship and learners reflected that they had learnt emotional, cognitive, physical, interpersonal, and social skills better through participation in organised out-of-school contexts (Wood, Larson & Brown, 2009: 297; Fredricks, 2011: 2; Fredricks & Eccles, 2005: 508). Participation in organised school activities also helps learners to develop life skills such as problem-solving, time management, goal setting, decision-making, and leadership skills.

The secondary school musical production as dialogic space

The secondary school musical production provides an opportunity for learners to enter into a safe dialogical space for life skills attainment. Educators usually provide the opportunity for learners to take part but it remains the learners' choice whether they want to participate or not. By participating in the staging of the musical learners acquire reasoning skills through interaction with their peers, as well as their educators and other role players involved in the production (Potgieter, 2012: 121). The interaction between these role players is often confrontational but always encourages authentic dialogue. My study documents a single secondary school experience in a developing country context and highlights the role of extra-mural secondary school musical productions within a Life Orientation education context. It enhances our understanding of the ontological and epistemological limits of Life Orientation education. Musical productions support learners towards a culture in which the constitutional, democratic values of *human dignity, equality and freedom* can be realised as an integral part of the subject Life Orientation.

A secondary school musical essentially remains a pedagogical event, because it represents a purposive socio-conventional intervention in individual and communal human development which is saturated with the values and history of the particular society and community in which it is located and contextualised. As a tool for cultural and pedagogical intervention, dialogue is not only pervasive in its range of use, but also powerful in its pedagogical possibilities. It is realised through on-stage dialogue between characters and off-stage dialogue between members of the cast and the production team, as well as between the production team and the audience. It is also realised through moments of interaction between the cast and the audience, dance, music or eclectic combinations of the above. Authentic dialogue mediates the cognitive and socio-conventional spaces between all role-players and stakeholders, as well as between what the learner as participant knows and understands and what he or she has yet to learn, know and understand.

It follows that one of the principal functions of a secondary school musical production is to provide appropriate and adequate dialogic-educative space and to create interactive opportunities for all relevant role-players and stakeholders so that it becomes possible to engineer such mediation.

Weiß and Knauth (1997), Alexander (2005) and Du Preez (2006) all reflect on the use of dialogue in educational contexts. Du Preez (2006: 33) critiqued the conceptions about educational (i.e. mainly pedagogical) dialogue by arguing that dialogue should not be regarded as a commodity to be used to gain a predefined end or become a tool geared towards achieving a pre-conceptualised goal. It should be the aim of education to break the traditional mould of sage-on-the-stage monologuing where the educator speaks and where the learner sits quietly absorbing his / her wisdom (Alexander, 2005: 3-4). The nature of the secondary school musical as specific genre is essentially geared towards breaking monologism¹ and to promote dialogue by cultivating a coming together of culturally and religious

¹ Monologism in this context refers to humans developing in a void through the perpetuation of cultural essentialism, cultural relativism and traditional communitarianism, where the voices of alternative possibilities are usually deliberately silenced (Du Preez, 2006: 35).

diverse communities in order to understand and accept each other's life-worlds. It is a vehicle to use dialogue to shape children's thinking and thus the societies they live in (Alexander, 2005: 1).

It should never be the aim of the secondary school musical to promote dialogue in order to solve the predicaments of society. This concurs with the view of Weiße and Knauth (1997: 39-42) that diverse experiences are prerequisites for dialogue. The musical production creates space for exploration about life where interlocutors from diverse backgrounds such as educators, learners, parents and other role-players who are part of the production meet to compare and reflect on their differences. Although the musical production is currently an extra-mural activity, it remains pedagogical in nature and can be adapted for the intra-mural curriculum as it is a purposive socio-conventional intervention in personal development, drenched with the societal values and history of the community it serves (Alexander, 2005: 2). As such, it provides a safe space for dialogue about social conventions, norms and values where mutual understanding is empathetic rather than critical in nature (Du Preez, 2006: 44).

The secondary school classroom as monologic space

The curriculum provided by the Department of Education (2010: 3, 4) for life skills education within a Life Orientation programme envisages a practice ground where individual and communal skills may be acquired and honed by secondary school learners. The traditional classroom has its origins in the factories of the Industrial Revolution where bells regulated time and spaces were manipulated by walls, hallways and gates (Barret & Smigiel, 2007: 39).

In contrast to the scheduled², yet pliable nature of the musical production where any space may be used for rehearsal and practice, the classroom situation seems to be a space for monologue rather than dialogue. The educator has to create a dialogic space for life skills attainment in a classroom that does not reflect a real life situation. To generate suitable opportunities in which learners are able to practise in a real life environment at least the majority of those life skills as stipulated by the curriculum, creates a real challenge for educators, especially as principles such as democratic and human rights, social justice, and reconciliation and equity should not only be taught but also instilled (Department of Education, 2010: 8).

If educators do not approach Life Orientation and particularly life skills education as an opportunity to realise the potential of the learners as functional individuals and community members they will not be able to contribute to the community where they work and live. The school as extension of the family, given its accountability in terms of acting *in loco parentis*, is obliged to accept its co-responsibility for educating these learners within the framework of the curriculum to acquire those life skills as stipulated by the curriculum for Life Orientation (Department of Education, 2010: 3). The aim of life skills education is to teach learners to acquire and apply knowledge, skills, norms and values, and to be able to participate meaningfully in their own communities irrespective of their individual

² It is scheduled, because of, for example, practice schedules and rehearsal slots. These are usually negotiated collaboratively between learners and teaching staff – hence the use of the term “pliable”.

diversity (Griessel, *et al.*, 1990: 50; Department of Education, 2010: 3). Educators should be aware of the limitations of the classroom environment as dialogic space as it does not easily allow for other role players or for transformational conflict to enter the classroom in order to provide input for the creation of a natural dialogue for exploration about life.

Findings of the comparative study

In this comparative study I found that secondary school musicals, as holograms of life and reality may, curricularly as well as pedagogically, be understood as practice grounds for life skills attainment which also incorporates issues of social justice. Although life skills could be taught conventionally, they should preferably be practised in an integrated and spontaneous manner and within a secure and safe space. Life skills attainment is, therefore, closely related to lifelong learning. The musical production could consequently be a useful pedagogical innovation through which the outcomes of the subject Life Orientation could not only be taught and practised but also be studied and assessed by educators, learners and other role-players and stake-holders.

The secondary school musical production endeavours to entertain and to educate. It becomes an instrument of discovering and exercising human talents as each learner finds his / her place in the production. Aspects of drama, song and choreography are present in the production and provide opportunities to learners to discover and enhance their talents. In the traditional classroom the detection of talents is limited by opportunity and the development of these talents are hampered by time constraints such as asynchronous pedagogic disruptions (i.e. scattered lesson periods on an official time-table). Technical aspects offer different areas of talent development to learners but cannot be fully developed in a traditional classroom environment. According to the data there is opportunity for all learners to participate in a secondary musical production – irrespective of their talents, skills or abilities. Musical ability, alone, should never be the prerequisite for participation in a secondary school musical production. Learners (should) become co-responsible for all aspects of the production with educators as their mentors. The classroom environment rarely provides talent development on this level. It is restricted in the variety of talent development options, because of time, spacial and subject-pedagogic limitations.

The secondary school musical also facilitates social interaction. Life skills linked to social interaction include effective communication, cooperation, working together towards a shared goal, mutual trust and acceptance of differences (Barret & Smigiel, 2007: 38). These skills are best attained when working together as a social community on a shared project that also includes the society-at-large. The musical production provides opportunity for learners within a safe dialogic-educative space to share social similarities but also confront social differences. The teaching space of a traditional classroom isolates learners, rather than unite them (Norberg, *et al.*, 2011: 215). The traditional classroom displays a propensity towards monologism whereas the musical acts like a centrifugal force towards authentic dialogue and social interaction.

Finally, the musical production encourages co-responsibility, mutual and reciprocal trust, as well as knowledge of otherness and the construction of meaning

with regard to social constructs. Trust and co-responsibility are mostly dependent on the presence of the social constructs of *sharing* and *cooperation* – which most producers, educators and scholars argue form an intrinsic part of the pedagogical and educational make-up of any secondary school musical production (Wolhuter, *et al.*, 2009: 50). Sharing a mutual goal should result in the participants having to trust their fellow-participants and to believe entirely in their mutual trustworthiness. Within this subculture of shared dialogue created by the musical production, participants are encouraged to practice their interpersonal skills and learn how to get along with and accept people from diverse world-views and backgrounds. Although it is expected of learners to be accepting of diversity within the classroom environment, it remains mostly a simulated situation which is often driven by fear of punishment rather than by true acceptance. In the traditional classroom, life skills may be explained, but behaviour usually associated with a particular life skill is seldom altered through mere instruction alone (Fredricks & Eccles, 2005: 508).

Conclusion

Further research with regard to the dialogic nature of secondary school teaching and learning environments should shed light on the implications for a South African developing country educational context. Perhaps the problems experienced in our current education system have their roots (of evil?) in the essentially monologic nature of our conventional classroom practices. The ontology of the proposed secondary school musical production and its implementation in schools should be clarified. Including a musical production in the Life Orientation programme could remediate contentious social problems and facilitate social justice within South Africa's diverse communities through the creation of dialogic educative spaces for effective knowledge, skills, norms and values education.

I conclude with a quotation from a participant as a summation of this discussion:

“...try something new. If you don't try you will never know what you can achieve.” (P8: R 38)

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SIMON TAUKENI & TAOLE MATSHIDISO**ACCESSING SOCIAL GRANTS TO MEET ORPHAN CHILDREN SCHOOL NEEDS: NAMIBIA AND SOUTH AFRICA PERSPECTIVE****Abstract**

In this comparative paper we interrogate the access of social grants to meet orphan children school needs in Namibia and South Africa. We noted that the two governments are committed to provide orphan children with social grants to enable them to meet the school needs. However, accessing social grant to benefit most vulnerable orphan children raised many questions than answers in the recent times. We reviewed published and unpublished documents to examine the access of social grant to orphan children in both Namibia and South Africa. We discuss how orphan children access the social grants and the challenges facing them and their caregivers to meet their school needs such as paying school fees.

Key words: Orphan children, school needs, maintenance grant, foster care grant

Introduction

The rights of all children are recognized internationally and the Namibian and South African governments are obliged to ensure that all children including orphans access education and better livelihood. The two neighboring governments offer a unique safety net for vulnerable households through the provision of social grants (Taylor, Kidman & Thurman, 2011). School children experiencing orphanhood are one of many groups of vulnerable children that need care and support (Wilson, Giese, Meintjes, Croke & Chamberlain, 2002) to meet their school needs. The definition of an orphan child varies from country to country and from one community to another (Skinner, Tsheko, Mtero-Munyati, Segwabe, Chibatamoto, et al, 2004). For instance in Namibia an orphan is any child under 18 years that has lost a mother or a father or both parents as a result of death (Smart, 2003). In South Africa, an orphan is defined as a child that has no surviving parent caring for him or her after one of the parents has died (Draft Children's Bill cited in Nkomo, 2006). It was estimated that by 2012 Namibia would have an orphan population of over 250 000 (UNICEF, 2002) translating to one in three children in Namibia will be an orphan. According to Statistics South Africa (2005) there are more than 3.5 million orphans. This is equivalent to 18.6% of all children in South Africa. The majority of these children became orphans as a result of HIV and AIDS (UNICEF, 2005). Despite the Namibian and South African governments' commitment to support orphan children in meeting their school needs, the reality on the ground seems to suggest that not all orphan children are accessing the grants and benefit from it. A study by UNICEF (2006) found that with the existence of social grants, some of the children who are beneficiaries are not going to school and many of those who are entitled to access the grant are not able to do so. Thus, the aim of this paper is to look into the access of social grants to orphan children and challenges they face in accessing the grants.

Methodology

A review of relevant documents was used to outline the findings and debates regarding the accessing of social grants to orphan children. Searches included both published and unpublished documents on social grants from both Namibia and South Africa. Existing reviews of research were examined and extensive online searches of numerous databases were conducted, including Dissertation Abstracts and Educational Resources Information Clearinghouse (ERIC). Combinations of the following key words were used in online searches: social grants and orphan children support services. Studies were only included if they provided information on social grants from Namibia and South Africa only.

Key Findings

In this section we present some key findings with regard to the access of social grants among orphan children in Namibia and South Africa. The main challenges facing the access of social grants among orphan children and their caregivers are also presented. We first present the findings about Namibia perspective before we look at the one from South Africa perspective.

Namibia perspective

Accessing social grants

The Namibian government provides support to orphan children through the social grants namely: child maintenance grants, foster care grants, allowance paid to children's home and places of safety and grants for children with disabilities. Since the paper focuses only on orphan children it talks more about the child maintenance grants and foster care grants which majority of orphan children are likely to be beneficiaries. Maintenance grant is paid towards the maintenance of a child under the age of 18 years. Parents receive N\$ 200.00 for one child plus N\$ 100.00 for every additional child monthly to a maximum of six children per applicant (Ashby, Yates, Hubbard & Mkusa, 2006). In order to qualify for maintenance grant the following should apply: One or both parents receive old age pension or disability grant, one parent has died or one parent is in prison for six months or longer and the surviving parent earns less than N\$ 1000-00 before deductions (Nitsckhe, Ihemba & Nekundi, 2007).

The foster care grant is given to caregivers who undertake the temporary care of any child found to be in need of care and who have been placed in his or her custody in terms of the Children Act No.33 of 1960. Parents receive N\$ 200.00 for one child plus N\$ 100.00 for every additional child monthly to a maximum of six children per applicant (Nitsckhe, Ihemba & Nekundi, 2007). The government of Namibia through its implementation of a Plan of Action for orphans and other vulnerable children (NPA 2006-2010) in the 2009 financial year, provided more than 50,000 children with social grants to alleviate their plight whilst attending schools (Yates, 2007). The Ministry of Gender and Child Welfare, is responsible for registering and processing grants for orphans and vulnerable children on a monthly basis.

Taukeni (2011) interviewed six orphaned children about social grants' provisioning. He found that half of the participants in the study received grants from

the government. Their caregivers and relatives received the grants on their behalf. The grants were used by their caregivers to buy orphan children school uniforms, shoes, clothes and to pay school fees. There were also a few of the participants shared their grants with other family members and the money was not enough to cater for all of their needs, especially, to pay school fees. Some of their comments were as follows: "I received the grant and one of my siblings received it too. My grandmother receives my grant on my behalf". Another participant said: "I am the only one who received the grant money from government at home. I share it with my brother". A girl living in child headed household said: "My sister uses it to buy us shoes, school uniform and pay school fees". Even though most orphan children were provided with social grants to meet their school needs, some of them are facing challenges to access these grants.

Challenges to access social grants among Namibian orphan children

A Baseline survey carried out by Project Hope in 2006 in the Namibian northern regions of Omusati and Oshana found that most orphan children were not attending school cited lack of money for school fees and school uniforms as reasons. This was also confirmed in the study conducted by Taukeni (2011) in the Endola circuit, Namibia that the majority of participants experienced problems with paying their school fees. Participants were quoted as follows: A maternal orphan girl said, "It was said that my father would send me money when he got paid to pay my school fees". Another paternal orphan boy revealed: "Fees are not going very well. I can stay even a year without paying school fees. When the school starts is when I pay". He also raised a concern that: "I feel bad about my name being called to pay in class. I used to feel bad. Other learners might say I am in the class but I did not pay".

Also, in their study Mnubi-Mchombu and Ocholla (2011) found that most orphans in rural areas were faced with poverty and could not afford to pay school fees. Unfortunately they were not aware that they could apply for an exemption. A few who knew the procedures for applying for exemptions were refused permission by the head teachers or principals. Additionally, Nitsckhe, Ihemba and Nekundi (2007) quoted Lydia, a 72 years old single female in the Khomas region who said that: "In order to apply for maintenance grant, I need to take the surviving parent along. Since I do not know his whereabouts I cannot register for the grant. I find it difficult to pay school fees, since the school refuse to exempt the children from school fees". Even though the participants had not paid their fees, none of them reported being barred from attending school. The inability to pay school fees is a plausible cause part of the drop in school participation after a parent's death, to the extent that the death reduces household income (Yamano & Jayne, 2004).

Documents also revealed how not being able to get proper documentation could prevent orphan children from applying for social grants. Obtaining birth certificates, death certificates and identity documents which are compulsory for one to qualify for welfare grants, was a problem mentioned. For instance, Taukeni (2011) found that some of the participants in the study did not receive the grant because of incomplete documentation. One of the participants commented that: "I was not registered because my birth certificate could not be found. It was with my maternal grandmother". He further commented that: "My grandmother did not want to give

the papers to let me be registered by my paternal aunt. She wanted to get me registered herself”.

Another challenge noted was with regard to the criteria that when the applicant earns more than N\$1000-00 per month, he or she does not qualify for the maintenance grant. If the children are orphaned by one parent and or might be vulnerable, they do not benefit from the support available from Government just because their caregiver earns slightly more than N\$1000-00 per month (Nitsckhe, Ihemba & Nekundi, 2007) or does not have income at all.

South Africa perspective

Accessing social grants

In 2000 the South African government started provision of cash grants as poverty alleviation mechanism. Among these grants are: child support grants, foster care grants, and care dependency grants. Orphans are also beneficiaries of these grants (Ntshunshu, 2011). The child support grant is R220 per month and is payable to all children under 14 years of age whose primary care giver passes a means test (Department of Social Development, 2005). The foster care grant is provided to children below the age of 18 who have been placed in foster care and are in need of assistance. The amount provided is R690 (Department of Social Development, 2005). However, access is markedly low for foster child grants compared to the access for child support grants (Taylor, Kidman & Thurman, 2011). The grants system is managed through the South Africa Social Agency and provides cash transfers to low-income families. As of October 2010, nearly fourteen million beneficiaries were receiving grant payments (South African Security Agency cited in Taylor, Kidman & Thurman, 2011).

Challenges to access social grants among South African orphan children

In her study Ntshunshu (2011) assessed the implementation of intervention programs that ensure the right to education for orphans in schools in the King William's Town District, South Africa. Data revealed that there were a number of challenges faced by orphans with regards to accessing social grants and this affected their school performance negatively. Some of the challenges were (1) even though orphans were receiving the social grants, it was inadequate to provide for their home and school needs; (2) there was lack of information by applicants to access documents they needed to apply for social grants; this was an impediment to access to funds from social grants; (3) the long distances travelled by people to reach social services posed obstacles to those wishing to apply for grants; (4) applicants lacked proper documentation such as birth certificates and parents' death certificate which could impede application processes for social grants; and (5) lack of monitoring of social grants resulted in the misuse of funds by some caregivers.

Taylor, Kidman and Thurman (2011) asserts that some foster care parents have great difficulty in getting the foster care grant because they fail to produce the necessary documents such as birth certificates, the biological parents' death certificates. This leaves many children who have lost parents without the social support at a time when they are particularly vulnerable. They also found that that it

is very difficult for child caregivers to get social grants as they are often complicated by a means test (Taylor, Kidman & Thurman, 2011). The child caregivers will only pass the test if he or she lives in either a rural area, in an informal or formal dwelling and an urban area in an informal dwelling, and has a personal income of below R1100 per month (together with the spouse) and occupying a brick or asbestos house (Department of Social Development, 2005). Many young children under the age of 18 are taking care of households and younger siblings, but they do not qualify to get foster care grant. Hence, the number of children receiving foster care grant is far below than it should be in reality (Ntshuntshe, 2011). For example, in some cases children are taking care of smaller siblings, in situations where both parents have died in HIV/AIDS related cases. In such cases the children will not qualify for foster care grant as it requires that anyone who seeks a foster care grant should stay in a stable environment and must have an income below R1100. As a result, many orphan children are left out to gain access of the foster care grants even though they qualify to get it.

Conclusion and recommendations

We conclude that even though the Government of Namibia and South Africa made provision of social grants to orphans and other vulnerable children to meet their school needs, not all orphans were able to access the grants and they were finding it difficult to pay their school fees. This is due to many reasons such as lack of supporting documentation for example: birth certificates, identity documents and death certificates. Another challenge mentioned especially with regard to accessing foster care grant in South Africa was the issue of a means test that most caregivers were finding it difficult to meet its criteria. We found that generally accessing foster care grants and maintenance grants was difficult in the two countries. It appears that some criteria to access social grants are not inclusive of orphan children who are taking care of younger siblings after the death of their parents especially in HIV and AIDS cases. We therefore recommend that the criteria to access foster care grants should include the orphans who are in child headed households in both Namibia and South Africa. Also, we noted that nearly all social grants in Namibia were N\$ 200-00 plus N\$ 100-00 for addition children to maximum of six, we would like to recommend that the amount needs to be increased so that orphan children could meet their school needs better.

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EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT AS DEFINING FACTOR IN SOCIAL STRATIFICATION IN CONTEMPORARY SPAIN

Abstract

One especially relevant key theme in Sociology of Education is to what extent parents' cultural level has significant implications in students' educational achievement and, as a consequence, in the social mobility inherently linked to level of education and professional training. In order to investigate this aspect on current Spanish society, our purpose has been to make an analysis based on data coming from public opinion surveys carried out by major sociological and statistical Spanish institutions. Since recently, these data are freely available to researchers, what makes possible the access to viewpoints of large samples of respondents. In short, with a view in the two-generation transit throughout the Spanish educational system, we will observe the validity of patterns of social and cultural inequality still *influencing* -though not *determining*- the educational achievement of Spanish population and, therefore, its professional development.

'Cultural capital' in contemporary Spanish society as a *defining* element of intergenerational transmission

Some decades ago, the concept of 'cultural capital' (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1970) was coined pursuing to disclose economically-based class relations that underlay differences in performance in education, and offering, as well, a way to question the dominant educational discourse. The term became a watershed in analysis and reflections about the nature of the educational system, and developed into one of the main spotlights in contemporary Sociology of Education. From 1970 on, social landscape in the so-called Western societies has changed dramatically, moving from an industrial setting to a post-industrial one, where validity of class-based assumptions is approached in a different -and frequently sceptical- way.

Even though it could be theoretically legitimate and appropriate, we are not aiming now to analyze in depth the validity of 1970 Bourdieu and Passeron's claims, with all its theoretical connotations, but just to approach the current Spanish educational reality with a view on a factor whose relevance was originally put forward by these authors. In this sense, according to data from Spanish Institute National for Assessment of Quality of Educational System (INECSE, 2005), parents' educational level turns out to be an adequate explanatory factor to be kept in mind for an appropriate understanding of the social reality of education, since there is a parallel progression between children's results and parents' level of studies in every area of knowledge. The same research quantifies with Pearson's correlation index the link between family's cultural level and achievement in Spanish language (0.285), Maths (0.307) and Social and Natural Sciences (*Conocimiento del medio*) (0.314) (INECSE, 2005, pp. 98, 150 and 61), which gives us a more precise numerical expression of something that is hardly expressed with such accuracy through words. In all the cases, the differences are statistically significant.

The concept *cultural capital* itself provides us with a meaningful frame to analyse the relevance of intergenerational transmissions in the particular Spanish case in two steps: firstly, in educational achievement, where some significant influences can easily be observed; secondly, we will try to make clear for this paper's readers how educational level acts as a key element strongly *defining* -though not *determining*- positions in labour market, with special reference to the peculiarities of the Spanish one. It was many years ago when Lester C. Thurow posed the *theory of the employment queue* (Thurow, 1983) as a criticism of the classic *theory of human capital*, originally formulated in relation to education by Theodore W. Schultz (Schultz, 1968) and Gary Becker (Becker, 1983), which emphasized the value of investments in training for economic promotion, both in the personal and collective sense. From Thurow's viewpoint, this was a valid approach only for welfare economic periods, but in recession ones the adequacy between qualifications and economic demand would be far from complete. In these contexts, education becomes a defensive weapon, and it is no longer a way to achieve better incomes.

In Spain, a main factor to weigh the extent to which a particular position in workforce can be considered more or less successful or favourable is unemployment rate, due to the special characteristics of the Spanish labour market. Only workers with University qualifications offer an unemployment rate significantly below the national average, which indicates a, comparatively speaking, more favourable starting point in the employment race, so especially difficult in Spain (INECSE, 2004, p. 3). In our data, we will observe the validity of Thurow's approach nowadays, particularly in relation to stability in public sector work. Strongly linked to the issues above, other factors are amenable to be analysed. Thus, it could be weighed to what extent the so-called 'cultural capital' is linked to 'economic capital'.

Parents' cultural background: incidence in educational attainment and further studies expectations

When it comes to go deeper into the reasons that underpin these aforementioned widely spread cultural influences, we should turn to the role of culturally-based background, with a double meaning. Firstly, family's cultural capital is decisively linked to educational resources available for children and, secondly, appropriate family environment usually generates equally appropriate attitudes towards education and associates skills. Data from Survey about Household Expenditures in Education 2007, carried out by National Statistics Institute, shows that the expenses in education are significantly different if we look at educational level and professional activities of breadwinners.

It has been also observed that the *cultural capital* has its corresponding translation into *social class*, whose belonging acts as an influential factor regarding percentages of 16 and 17 year-old population enrolled in post-compulsory secondary education. Parents' labour qualification can be considered as influential in a number of aspects. This point has been approached focused on the still underlying inequalities in enrolment rates, which has a particular meaning given that, apart from individual achievement, parents' working condition becomes an ingredient amenable to be affecting children's future perspectives and parents' will to invest in

education for their offspring. In this sense, it has been observed (Calero, 2006) how more than 72 per cent of children of manual non-qualified workers' drop out after compulsory education, with a similarly high figure (63.6) for the other worse-off group, agrarian workers. In these cases, both the comparatively lower qualification - and, therefore, educational level- and the worse economic condition can be considered as very strongly defining elements at this stage that is the normal route to University studies.

Data referring to number of books at home, TV consumption, availability at home of the Internet and the frequency of parents' assistance with children's homework are sufficiently meaningful of the diverse atmospheres offered in the respective cultural backgrounds (Pérez-Díaz, Rodríguez & Sánchez, 2004). These last aforementioned figures are clear indicators of the degree of parental involvement in their offspring's education. In this way, trying to define the specific mechanisms working in this contemporary form of *cultural capital*, it is expected that the differential availability of cultural resources at home would make easier a differential achievement at school for the offspring living in these diverse cultural environments.

The number of books available at home remarkably differs on the ground of the different educational levels, with an especially noticeable gap between individuals with University degrees and without studies (Survey about Participation of Adult Population in Learning Activity 2011, National Statistical Institute). A similar value, in that it is related to reading habits so strongly connected with success in education, has the data (from the same aforementioned source) related to the frequency of newspapers' reading by educational level. Percentages turn out to be increasing as we are going up in the educational level in the case of interviewees that read newspapers on a nearly daily basis; and the opposite occurs when it comes to data related to extreme low frequency of reading of newspapers. This factor can be thought as a good indicator of propitiatory habits in offspring's family settings. The diversity of factors involved in the mechanism of *cultural capital* has been widely covered by Spanish authors.

And this unequal availability of resources -both material and immaterial- is connected, in the Spanish case, to the duality existing in the educational system between *private-owned* and *public-owned* centers, with diverse consequences as the different chances of promotion from one course to the following (Gimeno, 2004, pp. 187-190). *Parents' cultural level* variable is present in Spanish reality, as well, as an explanatory ingredient in relation to centre ownership, in that it is possible to find a noticeably higher presence of highly-qualified and educated progenitors in private educational institutions (INECSE, 2005, p. 60). Meanwhile, it has also been observed that academic achievement is more satisfactory in private centres (INECSE, 2005, pp. 58, 95 and 147; Instituto de Evaluación, 2010, pp. 160 and 162). Indeed, public/private dualism is apt to be approached as an additional -but significant- factor. Comparing total percentages of respondents who studied in the different types of educational centers with the corresponding percentages classified by their highest achieved educational level it is possible to find significant remarks about the influence of the private/public dualism in the long term (Survey on Spanish Youth 2007, Centro de Investigaciones Sociológicas).

This reality has become particularly apt to misunderstandings, and recent data from Instituto de Evaluación makes clear -by taking into consideration the so-called *Socio-economic and Cultural Index* (ISEC)- that results have to be analyzed at the light of social setting of both students and centers (*op. cit.*, pp. 162 and 163). Reasons for this differential achievement have -as far as our data are concerned- *nothing to do with an intrinsically higher quality of teaching in private centres*, but with sociological traits of students. In fact, students with less favourable educational conditions (mainly, immigrants, ethnic minorities, and marginal and rural populations) are more widely tended by state-owned centres, and, subsequently, results from these groups are numerically reflected in them. In the opposite sense, students with the highest parents' cultural background are statistically more prone to be included in the most favourable *social* conditions offered by private centres.

Study-based labour market position

How could these years in contemporary Spain be defined when it comes to the role of cultural level in the labour market? We can say that we are not living in the atmosphere of prosperity, sharp economic growth and, specially, full-employment that characterized *human capital* proponents' years; on the contrary, Spanish population has to live with certain degrees of unemployment, specially of what could be called *qualified unemployment*, since the vast majority of the highly educated work force does not wish to work in certain kinds of *inappropriate* jobs. It is possible to talk, then, paraphrasing Thurow, about a 'queue of *qualified* employment'.

Though aforementioned Thurow's viewpoint was originally referring to unemployment situations that stem from the 70s crises, it seems that he was, to a great extent, right even for current times, given that high qualifications and educational levels lose part of the value that was arising from an offer/demand mechanism. What becomes true is that in *crisis* a University qualified worker could be in the same queue for subsidies as an illiterate one, but, even in these contexts, qualified work force will face the professional future with better prospects.

In this sense, if something can be considered as very especially defining Spanish culture towards work, it is certainly the wish to get a job in the public sector, as a consequence of the deep concern for stability that characterizes our attitudes when it comes to economic activity. In this sense, we would like to highlight how the level of studies predominant in the public sector (civil service and public-owned companies) is University, with a remarkable difference compared with private sector, moreover. Even in underemployment cases, University studies become a way, in short, to get not only better incomes, but as well a more desirable position where stability has a major weight, which turns out to be a particularly decisive factor for a majority of job seekers (Survey on Spanish Youth 2007, Centro de Investigaciones Sociológicas).

Conclusion: the influence of parents' educational level on children's development

This paper was originally conceived as a means to put into words and figures how the educational level still behaves as the Ariadna's thread that let us get out of

the labyrinth of social circumstances. It is not possible to talk in rigour, as it is frequently done, of a *determining* effect of cultural level in intergenerational transmissions. We would rather talk about *conditioning* influences, in that all the figures in the tables and graphs above show how, in the first step, parents' cultural level has proved to affect children's educational development and expectations, with a view in the role that the private/public dualism plays in this complex game.

This, in turn, becomes the way for diverse higher education degrees that, *statistically* speaking, have shown a positive effect on working activity, as much in relation to incomes as in presence in the most envied sector of the Spanish economy. In particular, in spite of the depth of the social changes that have contributed to diminishing the gap between qualified and non-qualified work force, it is possible to observe how highest educational levels still keep a comparatively privileged position in the labour market. Put another way, if we talk about *statistical conditionings* we emphasize that social factors -and particularly parental educational background- do not completely mould society newcomers' working lives, although, with no doubt, they make it easier for the potter to outline the shape that has to be given to the pre-existing clay.

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FROM TIMES OF TRANSITION TO ADAPTATION: BACKGROUND AND THEORETICAL APPROACH TO THE CURRICULUM REFORM IN ESTONIA 1987-1996

Abstract

The aim of the paper is to research the important process of the history of the educational development of Estonia, the reform of the national school curriculum which began after the teacher's congress in 1987 and ended in 1996 when government approved the document. That reform was carried out in the context of thoroughgoing and dramatic historical changes that deeply affected the whole Estonian society. The distinctive features of the Estonian model of general education became more visible with the nascent space for liberalization caused by the Gorbachev's *perestroika* in the Soviet Union in the middle 1980s. Although Estonians already had certain autonomy to teach and learn in Estonian and use Estonian textbooks, it was just after the collapse of the Soviet system that abolished Soviet traces in the framework of the Estonian school curriculum.

Introduction

Prior to World War II Estonia was an independent country and had its own national school curriculum. After the World War II, Estonia came under Soviet rule that meant the imposition of the Soviet school curriculum (more of the model of the learning plan) up to 1991. Profound modification of curriculum from 1987 until 1996 was one of the innovations in Estonia in order to get rid of the Soviet heritage.

Here the effort will be made to employ some of the most recent and advanced theoretical discourses in studying history of education. So, the aim of this study is to position the example of Estonian curricular development into the broader international, theoretical, historical context. Thus the main research question is:

What characterized the process of Estonian curriculum planning from Soviet time to the first national version of 1996 in the context of Western curricular development?

Estonian experience is interesting because it indicates that “/.../ curriculum reform is successful when there is support from both educationalists of all kinds and the general public can also be mobilized, using the strategy and tactics especially developed for implementing this process” (Ruus & Sarv, 2000, p. 141).

Discussion

Author argues that the Estonian case can be put in the frame of social construction theory, which implies that changes in society would necessarily reflect in curriculum planning because of “the tension between: social efficiency, child-centeredness, and social reconstruction” (Hendry, 2011, p. 172). The same which Professor Stephen Hazlett considered much earlier – “the commonplace premise is that the school curriculum is, or should be, responsive to the society and its movements, trends, „needs“, and aspirations” (Hazlett, 1979, p. 129, original

emphasis). The notion (or concept) is important not only in the area of curriculum studies but more generally in sociology of education and social sciences. More broadly Estonia has tried and is still trying to employ as much elements as possible of the Western (more British-American) curricular thinking and tradition. Certainly it is not as simple as it seems. There remain some paradoxical similarities between neo-liberalism and socialist tenets; “/.../ ironically the neoliberal and original Marxist positions share the same basic assumptions /.../” (Beck, 1999, p. 22). Now in the neoliberal guises of the same, often hatred but culturally familiar Soviet practices of surveillance, monitoring and assessment can occur. Based on this, next question emerges: How can we balance the challenges of reclaiming the new independence without reproducing the Soviet mentality that helped to get rid of it? This question is left for future studies of the author.

Social change or conflict and its linkage with curriculum have often been emphasized. That is why for Professor Ivor Goodson “the social conflict within the subject is central to understanding the subject itself” (and hence relations among subjects) because “the continuing dominance of the competitive academic curriculum is the result of a continuing contest within school subjects” (Goodson, 1992, p. 67). Thus exploring social change in curriculum history is very important. For Professor Brian Simon, the leading historian of education in Great Britain in the second half of the twentieth century, it is „a crucial issue to which historical study can and should make a direct contribution, is that of the relation between educational and social change” (Simon, 1994, p. 9; see also McCulloch et al, 2007, p. 406). However, at the level of schooling curriculum development can be seen more in terms of “ideology, power and economic resources” (Apple, 2004, p. 47), along with the “relationship between educational, social and political change” (Simon, 1985, p. 22).

The Estonian curriculum reform started in the conditions of liberalization induced by Gorbachev’s *perestroika*. Professor Jagdish Gundara admits rightly that:

The collapse of the Soviet Union was partly the result of the way in which Russians dominated the languages and cultures of the other nationalities and republics after Stalin. It has led to a narrow nationalistic and linguistic reaction within a number of ex-Soviet and Baltic States (Gundara, 2005, p. 244).

Goodson claims that:

The most interesting points for [historical] inquiry /.../ are when different layers of historical time coincide; for it is at such point that inclination towards /.../ change and reform are strongest, they can be seen in key moments of educational history and change (Goodson, 2004, p. 17).

Author thinks that this assertion corresponds well to the situation in the USSR and in Estonia during the *perestroika* and its reforms.

Some words about Soviet learning programs. According to Professor Edgar Krull and Senior Researcher Rain Mikser (2010):

The long isolation from western educational thought meant that many ideas and concepts relevant for curriculum development, like aim-oriented learning ideology, changes in understanding the nature of learning and teaching, and

many other innovative educational ideas remained unknown to Estonian educators for decades (p. 44).

Soviet teaching programs in history of Estonia of 1945-1988 were really ideological documents with Soviet style explanatory letter and learning plan. But the Baltic countries had their own hidden curriculum in teaching. It was characterized by “changing of learning material (abbreviation, excluding of some problems and events or interpret them in its useful way of thinking), by nonverbal expression (mimics, gestures), by ignoring of forbidden (using national symbolic in dressing, our own school uniform) etc.” (Nagel, 2006, p. 152). Also, “Estonian educators and teachers, understanding that the authorities did not tolerate any refusal teaching communist ideology, became used to including in their instructional subjects and educational addresses ideological slogans of which the overwhelming majority of them really did not believe” (Krull & Trasberg, 2006, p. 3).

According to Australian curriculum scholar Professor Murray Print “curriculum presage” is “an effective commencement point in any curriculum development” (Print, 1993, p. 25). The teachers’ congress of Estonia in 1987 was a starting point. For Estonia this event was revolutionary. All innovative ideas, including new curriculum started from that event. So, events are extremely important and we have to do right conclusions from the ideas of these kinds of events and we have to lead these ideas into appropriate directions of common good. Second, there is the phase of institutionalization in curriculum change (Print, 1993, p. 231). In Estonia the institutions which dealt with curriculum development were the Pedagogical Research Institute and later Curriculum Laboratory of Tallinn Pedagogical University and the Center of Educational Planning of Estonia. For Murray Print curriculum planning is the “process of implementing and evaluating learning opportunities intended to produce desired changes in learners”. He also states that developing has to be preceded by conceptualization “through the process of planning and incorporating a curriculum design /.../” (Print, 1993, p. 23). Another Australian Professor Colin Marsh sees the same stages but adds resource materials planning and their review (Marsh, 1986, p. 89). Both teachers and experts have to be involved in the process, the better way is to organize them into working groups. Now in Estonia the idea started that representatives of parents had to be involved as advisory body.

According to Print there are three phases: organization, development and then application (Print, 1993, p. 84). But in Estonia it went differently: the Estonian Teachers’ Association was restored only as late as 1991. So the curriculum planners decided to divide teams by subjects (physics, language teachers, history teachers) not by organizational distinctness as usually. In Estonia there was a vision that we need general part with key competences and cross-curricular subjects. But Latvia went another way – it modified only subject syllabuses.

Why is it significant to overview curriculum development historically? „Why there have not been more historical studies of curriculum making?” asked Hazlett in the end of 70s (Hazlett, 1979, 131). Goodson goes even further; he says that in a longer time perspective “we may provide a reconceptualization of the mode of curriculum study that will allow us to connect specific acts of social construction to wider social impulses” (Goodson, 1992, p. 67). Knowing and researching history is important part of the development of Estonian society as we always can learn from

historical events. The genealogy of the curriculum planning and exploring its theoretical framework provides us with better understanding of the social and political complexities of curriculum making. It can also offer useful insights particularly in the extreme turning points of history as to the complex ways curriculum is constructed and negotiated. And finally, employing some of the most recent and advanced discourses in curriculum theory/history gives ability to intellectually map the discursive shifts leading to the first official 1996 national school curriculum. The period of the first national curriculum planning after restoring of independence of Estonia is interesting also because during the same period UK's parliament voted for approval of its Education Act and its central feature the National Curriculum 1988.

But what about curriculum history? Curriculum history started to evolve in the 1960s in the USA. As Professor Barry Franklin (2009) puts it:

Although curriculum history has become a worldwide scholarly endeavor, it emerged first as a distinct and clearly identified field of study in the USA in the late 1960s and has developed more fully in that national setting than in many others (p. 295).

It was the influence of launching Soviet Sputnik in 1957. USA started to change its educational system after being felt to be behind the Soviet Union in space exploration. "The history of the school curriculum began to attract broad attention in England in the 1970s in response to the complexities of curriculum reform and the insights of the "new" sociology of knowledge" (McCulloch, 2011, p. 83, original emphasis).

According to Professor Thomas Popkewitz:

The task of curriculum history is to explore the shifts over time in the relevant knowledge and ideas that comprise the curriculum and make an effort to identify their impact on the social construction of educational events. It is the lineage of these curricular changes that, according to Popkewitz, constitutes the historic regulative or controlling role of the curriculum (Franklin, 1999, p. 473; see also Popkewitz, 1997).

Conclusion

Why history is important in curriculum development? According to known Estonian originated US education scientist Professor Hilda Taba (1999) "it is the task of progressive curriculum planning to extract from our heritage of knowledge, ideas, and thought" (p. 259).

Second, Professor William Pinar has stated:

Scholars are acutely aware that curriculum work occurs in time, in history, and this self-consciousness regarding the historicity of curriculum work, theoretical or institutional, has helped support the increasing interest in historical studies of curriculum (Pinar et al, 1995, pp. 42-43).

There are different stages of the curriculum development in Estonia which is the important process of the history of the educational development in any state.

And finally, Professor Gary McCulloch (1987) has written:

In general we may say that curriculum historians interpret the curriculum as a social and political construct, and curriculum processes as inherently historical. It might be concluded also that curriculum history is most likely to remain established as an area of academic interest in those places where it makes efforts to be accepted not only as an approach to the study of the curriculum, but also as an integral part of social history (p. 314, 318).

Author argues that Estonia is such a country.

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Part 2

Pre-Service and In-Service Teacher Training & Learning and Teaching Styles

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WHAT LESSONS TO TAKE FROM EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN ASIA-PACIFIC REGION? FACTORS THAT MAY INFLUENCE THE RESTRUCTURING OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN EAST TIMOR

Abstract

To better understand current curricular reforms in some Asia-Pacific countries that came out of conflict periods, documents and information posted on various national and international agency websites were analysed. In this paper we aimed to (i) present a brief description of the conditions under which new secondary education curricula are being implemented in East Timor; (ii) describe the general characteristics of some Asia-Pacific countries that came out of conflict periods; (iii) analyse the factors that are impacting secondary educational changes in these countries; and (iv) identify some important issues to be considered in secondary school reform in East Timor.

Introduction

Since the end of the Cold War, a large number of countries affected by war and conflicts, such as Cambodia and East Timor, have experienced transitions that led to rebuild their education systems in line with social, economic, political and cultural changes.

In East Timor, school curriculum reform is regarded “*as a key component of higher living standards*” [1, p. 44] and the Government, within the project “*Restructuring of secondary school curriculum of East Timor*”, together with Portuguese institutions, is developing new secondary curricular materials, aiming at contributing to local Millennium Development Goals (MDG) and sustainable development [2], [3].

Curricular reforms in other Asia-Pacific countries aimed to promote the development of specific skills in different domains, including in vocational education, and to expand the use of information technology in the classroom [4]. Such reforms are reflected in different improvements, such as on secondary education enrolments and youth literacy [5]. Thus, it will be interesting to compare some aspects of curricular policies and design in East Timor with those of other Asia-Pacific countries in order to identify similarities among them and highlight

required specificities that are important taking into account in curricular reform in East Timor.

Based on published documents posted on various national and international agency websites, e.g. [5], [6], this chapter:

- i. Briefly describes the conditions under which new secondary education curricula are being implemented in East Timor;
- ii. Describes general characteristics of some Asia-Pacific countries that came out of conflict periods and analyses factors that are impacting their secondary education changes;
- iii. Identifies some issues that are important to consider in secondary school reform in East Timor.

Secondary Curricular Reform Implementation in East Timor

As is already well documented in numerous studies (e.g. [7]) and official documents of the Government [8], East Timor emerged from periods of violence and fragility in which most of the basic infrastructures were destroyed. Schools destroyed are still a major problem when demographic patterns show population increase. Restructuring education services was considered vital and the Strategic Development Plan 2011 – 2030 (SDP 2011-2030), consistent with the MDG, highlights the necessity of a better education to build a fair and progressive nation [8]. Concerned with current education status of 15 to 19-year-olds, EFA statistics report [6] reveals that one in three Timorese are still in lower secondary, despite being officially of upper secondary age.

Much attention has been paid to improve and expand the secondary educational system, also to counterweigh the high percentage of basic school-aged children [8]. The SDP 2011–2030 points out that the earlier secondary curricula are not appropriate to serve East Timor needs [8].

The new secondary curricula are being prepared through a cooperation protocol between the East Timor Government and several institutions in Portugal [2]. A team of researchers and curriculum developers of the University of Aveiro is responsible for the design and development of curricular materials for 14 disciplines, specifically programmes, textbooks for students and the corresponding teacher's guides [7]. The need for suitable curricular materials is particularly of important, as the minister of presidency of East Timor highlighted: *"It is not good enough that many have to walk hours each day, to an overcrowded classroom, without appropriate books and curriculum"* [9]. The new curriculum for 10th grade started being implemented in 2012.

However, it must be stressed that there are risk factors and problems associated with any curricular innovation. These are common among countries that came out of a conflict situation, and usually may result in:

- i. Power of traditional authorities [10];
- ii. Inability to fund either capital or recurrent expenditure;
- iii. Chronic shortages of qualified teachers;
- iv. General corruption;
- v. Lack of transparency in education governance [11].

Ramos and Teles [11] endorse the idea that for effective institutionalization and successful management of curriculum reform is crucial to:

- i. Invest in decentralization of working capital;
- ii. Teacher training;
- iii. Logistic improvement in distribution of curricular materials;
- iv. Restructuration of the infrastructures of access to the schools.

Peretomode and Ikoya [12] underline that it is vital to promote strong leadership in schools. School leaderships should provide the necessary support mechanisms for adopting new curricula. These mechanisms include meticulous planning, involvement of teachers, students and other core stakeholders in decision making and, the most important, building consensus on how to promote and sustain curriculum innovation.

However, several other issues, common to countries out of conflict, may influence curricula restructuring. These will be described and analysed in the next section.

Characteristics of some Asia-Pacific Countries and Factors that have Impact on Secondary Educational Changes

General characteristics of three *low-income countries* [13]: East Timor, Lao People's Democratic Republic (Laos) and Cambodia are described, followed by an analysis of the factors that are impacting their secondary curricular implementation.

General characteristics of each country

In ascending order of independence, Laos became free by a civil war in 1975, Cambodia became free from Vietnamese occupation in 1989 and East Timor became free from the Indonesian occupation in 1992. Laos is the country with the biggest surface area, followed by Cambodia and at last, East Timor. In terms of total of population, Cambodia has the highest number of people, followed by Laos and then East Timor. Regarding population growth, East Timor reveals the highest value, followed by Laos and then Cambodia [14].

Concerning the year when each country started the last curriculum reform process, Cambodia started its reform in 1996, Laos in 2006 and East Timor in 2010. Regarding school enrolment, in 2010, Laos showed the higher increase in secondary school enrolment, followed by East Timor and then Cambodia [14]. However, Cambodia showed the largest increase in youth literacy rate in the period 2005-2010 [14].

Regarding compulsory education levels, East Timor shows the biggest change. Compulsory education in East Timor includes the first nine years of schooling (basic education) [8], while only the five years of primary education are compulsory in Laos [15] and Cambodia [16]. The rising investment of East Timor in education reflected beliefs that continued economic development requires a more knowledgeable and skilled labour force [8].

It is important to identify which factors concerning secondary educational reforms, have impact on secondary school enrolments in Laos. Moreover, which factors are impacting in youth literacy rate in Cambodia? Regarding East Timor context, which conditions are limitations (or not) to the appropriate curricular development and to the improvements in secondary school enrolments and youth literacy? These and other aspects will be examined in the next section.

Factors that have impact on secondary educational changes

Laos, like Cambodia and East Timor are low-income countries aiming to achieve general goals, such as the MDG required for sustainable development. All these countries recognize gains in improving access and equity to education, to allow people to participate in the economic, social and political development. Therefore, all had interest in reform education, though each country shows its own education policies and curriculum framework [5].

A general trend towards the decentralization of education policies and strategies was fostered to ensure that these are being effectively implemented at all levels ([17], [18], [10]). However, it was recognized that efforts to decentralize many decision-making and financial management face many constraints that are common to the three countries, for instances, the inevitability “*for training local staff to take up new responsibilities*” [17, p. 2].

Regarding the restructuring of secondary education systems, new curricula in these three countries were designed with a combination of content and competency-based approaches, where topics and contents were selected according to the learning objectives. These new and innovative curricula intended to overcome: “low enrolment ratios in secondary education”; “large number of out-of-school secondary-school-aged youth”; “low relevance, quality and efficiency in last secondary education programmes”, due to “out-dated information”, “discipline-based, college-bound curriculum”; “inadequate qualifications of many teachers and education managers and school principals”, among others problems [19, p. 426-427].

Some of these purposes were also recognized by technical missions for monitoring the secondary curriculum restructuring in East Timor [20]. In addition, there are points of resistance, namely some reluctance of teachers to change their traditional teaching habits. Furthermore, the demand to continuously introduce new subjects into the curriculum aggravates the problem of the overcrowded curriculum [18].

In response to the above-mentioned problem, most countries have taken steps in order to decongest the curriculum. One of the trends is to adopt a cross-curricular approach, implying that new learning areas are not separate subjects, but rather appear integrated throughout the curriculum, as in Cambodia [18]. Moreover, a cross-curricular approach allowing interdisciplinary practices [18]. Theoretically, the new secondary curricula of East Timor have this advantage [3].

Concerning secondary school enrolments, the three countries in review show that low secondary enrolment coverage is highest in urban and economically developed areas, and lowest in rural ethnic group areas and poor districts. Gender disparity, too, manifests itself more prominently in rural, remote and ethnic group areas [21]. These aspects may explain differences in enrolments in secondary education [14] and adult or youth literacy rate of each of these three countries. However, it is the differences in female enrolment which best explains the differences between the countries under study [14]. Also, teacher attitudes are increasingly recognized as a major influence on school dropout patterns too [22].

Another limitation is registration fees adopted by schools [18]. Education in East Timor is free of charge and this may be a positive factor for school enrolment.

Also, the successful implementation of new curricula is highly dependent on national infrastructures. Lack of electricity, poor roads, for example, “can hinder timely delivery of printed learning materials”, as well as “general communications between students and teachers” [23, p. 30].

Relevant Issues in Secondary School Reform in East Timor

There would be many aspects to consider in the process of restructuring general secondary curriculum in East Timor. In fact, many reports concerning Portuguese intervention in this process are available [24], but its analysis is not the purpose. The main purpose of this chapter is to compare some relevant issues concerning general secondary education reforms, in particular among three Asia-Pacific countries with serious economic and social problems. This comparison aimed to contribute to better understand the educational reform of secondary curriculum in East Timor which is in its initial phase.

After the comparison described in the previous section, it appears that East Timor government and all involved actors should pay particular attention to:

- i. Efforts to decentralize many decision-making, which require training local staff to take up new responsibilities;
- ii. Appropriate training of teachers (to overcome a certain resistance to change their traditional teaching habits);
- iii. A cross-curricular approach aligned with interdisciplinary development;
- iv. Reducing the discrepancy and the gap in learning opportunities between urban and rural areas and between genders;
- v. Promoting female enrolment;
- vi. Promoting parent awareness about the relevance of an upper secondary education, in order to overcome school dropout rates;
- vii. Promote teacher awareness for change and for information processing and knowledge constructing within new curricula, to avoid the fear of the unknown;
- viii. Persist in the development of national basic infrastructures, to prevent lack of electricity in many localities or the huge network instability, poor roads and inadequate school infrastructures in order to overcome difficulties in timely delivery of printed learning curricular materials.

The reports of the technical missions, e.g. [20], stress the importance of continuous training and follow-up the implementation of the new curriculum plan. This training and follow-up should be provided by the teams that produced curricular materials. It is obvious the need for a significant effort to provide the school park with the minimum conditions for a teaching quality and dignity that the Timorese deserve and need (properly equipped classrooms, laboratories, computer rooms, libraries, etc.).

In sum, the complexity of a system-wide reform requires changes that imply various stakeholders’ intervention in order to build a better future. Moreover, it is important not to underestimate the timeframe for a system-wide change to give time and to prevent the capacity to resist to centrally mandated changes [25]. Finally, it will be interesting in further studies to investigate, in local context, how the new curricular materials are being used by schools, teachers and students and how these

improve secondary school enrolments and youth literacy rate. There are little publications about these topics and most is not written in English.

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THE CULTURE OF EXPERIENTIAL COMMUNITY BASED LEARNING: DEVELOPING CULTURAL AWARENESS IN PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

Abstract

This paper describes the culture of experiential community based learning at Central College, a rural liberal arts college in Midwestern, USA. Pre-service teachers use experiential community based learning to reflect on their personal growth in understanding the needs of diverse learners. Reflections demonstrate how the program contributes to the development of cultural awareness. There is a culture of civic engagement as stated in the college strategic plan and community goals. The program is coordinated through the Center for Community Based Learning (CCBL) which acts as a liaison with not-for-profit organizations in Des Moines and other at risk locations in Iowa. Students are placed with not-for-profit organizations to give support to low income families, refugees, the homeless, immigrants; teaching English, or working with at risk children and young adults in alternative high schools and shelters. The paper presents research findings regarding the impact on college students of experiential learning. The pre-service teachers describe the challenges and learning outcomes from their out of class experiences. The study participants, in the human relations education course have to commit to fifteen hours of experiential community service. The program develops dispositions and skills for pre-service teachers to understand multicultural education in preparation for teaching in increasingly diverse classrooms. The paper presents data collated from the students' reflections, journals, research papers and in class discussions. The pre-service teachers describe the impact of working with multicultural groups to include: increased cultural awareness, a greater understanding of learner differences, and the development of empathy for the needs of diverse communities.

Keywords: Pre-service Teachers Training; Experiential Service Learning; Higher Education

Introduction

To be an effective teacher, in today's media immersed environment, there is still the requirement for face-to-face interaction to relate to and understand the real life interpersonal experiences of others. Pre-service teachers in USA are part of a global society connected electronically by media focused communities who text, tweet, post photographs, use smart phones, apps, and multiple electronic devices to share opinions, interact, comment and communicate with each other. Students research digitally and are constantly connected with instant communities of scholars, family, strangers and friends. However, teaching requires person-to-person communication, an understanding of individual differences and how to teach to encourage all students to reach their potential. The pre-service American teachers described in this paper are part of this media dependent generation of students. (Black, 2010, p. 97) The paper describes one facet of the teacher education program where the goal is to develop collaborative skills and an understanding of learner differences. The pre-

service teachers undertake fifteen hours of experiential service, placed in centers through the Center for Community Based Learning (CCBL). The CCBL program is nationally recognized, founded in 1996 in recognition of the need for civic engagement and a genuine concern for others. Support is given to low income groups, refugees, the homeless, and others in need. The campus office has a liaison with not-for-profit organizations, supporting Central's strategic plan to: "Develop a portfolio of programs to reflect Central's commitment to global and community engagement." (2012)

The State of Iowa requires all trainee elementary and secondary teachers to take a human relations course which introduces pre-service teachers to multicultural education and develop an understanding of diverse groups. An integral part of the course is the commitment to fifteen hours of community service. Pre-service teachers select a site and work with diverse groups of children or young adults in need. Reflective journals, discussions, research, pre and post experience surveys are used to evaluate the experience and to enable the students to reflect upon their contributions, observations, the benefits, challenges and stereotypical views. Reflections are guided by course InTASC standards: demonstrating an understanding of learner differences, reflection and continuous growth, and an ability to work collaboratively. The pre-service teachers reflect on how the experience contributes to their understanding of diverse communities.

Developing Cultural Awareness in Pre-Service Teachers

The Iowa State Board of Education (2012) address the need for future teachers to have "21st century skills to bridge the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of students from the core subjects to real life applications" one of which is civic literacy. To achieve these goals teacher need to be self reflective, critical thinkers, seeking meaning and explanations, not just fitting into the future but shaping it.

"The teacher of tomorrow has to be an advocate for all students accepting and promoting a learning environment with the goal of success for all children. The U.S. was founded on equality. Education is still a means to provide equal opportunity for individuals to achieve personal success and national prosperity" Droppert (2010). Central College works to train teachers to meet the needs of the increasingly diverse school population. During their four year degree program pre-service teachers are placed for over 150 hours of classroom interaction to observe and teaching at multiple grade levels. The experience described in this paper is one facet of the whole, but contributes to the development of cultural awareness and an understanding of real life teaching situations. The Cultural Awareness Survey (CCBL, 2012) a pre and post experience survey is used to document pre-service teachers' responses to the service experience, monitoring the effectiveness of the program. Samples from the survey provide narratives of students' perceptions. Statements include:

- I was not prepared emotionally to work with the group of children. Walking in and being told about their hardship was a shock. I grew a greater understanding of others, academically I was able to see examples of what my text was teaching and professionally I was able to gain skills for the future.
- I have definitely become more confident in my choice to be a teacher. I have become better with helping students.

- I learned a lot about how children interact with each other and how to work with children who have behavioral issues.

These responses demonstrate common themes of increased confidence, improved teaching skills, and a greater understanding of learner differences. Further comments are:

- I have never had experiences with children who emigrated from a country other than Mexico, so it was a good experience to interact with them.
- Yes, I felt this was a wonderful experience that allowed me to grow as a person.
- I benefitted from my experience. Personally I became close to the children and enjoyed my time there. I also feel better prepared to be a teacher and have students of different cultures in my classroom.

These responses demonstrate the growth in maturity, reaffirmation of career choices and appreciation of cultural differences. In response to the question: Has your cultural awareness been affected by your experience? If so, in what ways? Pre-service teachers wrote:

- I have developed a greater awareness of global issues and of different cultures. It made me more appreciative of what I have. It also made me more curious about other cultures and I want to learn more about them.
- I have learned to keep my mind open to people because we do not know their story.
- Yes, it was a much more diverse group than I ever went to school with. It was very eye opening in good ways.
- I definitely became more culturally aware, working with ELL students. I learned so much about their culture by working with them. It was a lot of fun and helped make me a better person and better teacher.

The experiences challenge pre-service teachers to re-evaluate stereotypical views:

- I have learned about the diversity in Des Moines and that I may have student like these kids in my class one day. I have learned a lot about inner city cultures.
- Driving through the neighborhood and some of the people coming in for food was scary.
- I had never been around people of different cultures so feel this experience opened my eyes to different cultural backgrounds.
- I worked at Las Americas, it keeps making me more culturally aware. I see different things with each visit and it helps me to understand. I do not want to stop going, Las Americas it is a great site.

The responses in journals, papers and the surveys demonstrate how pre-service teachers developed their collaborative skills, empathy, self confidence, initiative, a greater understanding of learner differences, and how to work with diverse groups. The personally documented outcomes in students' reflections reinforce research findings that experiential community based learning has positive learning and dispositional benefits, which enhance an understanding of other cultures and diverse groups.

The Culture of Experiential Community Based Learning: The Center for Community Based Learning (CCBL)

The pre-service teachers' placements, background screening, initiation and support are coordinated through the Center for Community Based Learning. CCBL focuses on developing civic responsibility for all students on campus. The partnership model fosters genuine reciprocity for civic engagement. CCBL has an interactive web site to assist students and faculty to select placement centers, and make connections between course goals and community experiences. They document student participation; coordinate and fund student transport while developing interdisciplinary service opportunities to work collaboratively with and support for community partners. The center works for the common good with ninety community partners supporting groups in distressed conditions in Des Moines and neighboring communities in five Iowa counties. The not-for-profit organizations support immigrant groups from Mexico or South America. In addition there are increased numbers of political and economic refugees, displaced families from war zones in Asia, the Middle East, and Africa. Many of the families and children have been relocated to the mid-west and have no knowledge of English or American norms.

The Central campus has a culture of civic engagement. CCBL plans civic dialogues bringing students, faculty, and community partners together for discussions. Students majoring in communications, education, English, political science, psychology, sociology, Spanish, athletics and exercise science use community service as part of their academic course work. In 2012, CCBL was named a national finalist in the Presidents' Higher Education Community Service Honor roll for work to improve neighborhoods and improve educational and developmental outcomes for all children in the nation's most distressed communities.

Pre-Service Teacher Experiential Community Based Learning: Research

Pre-service teachers' reflections described working collaboratively in community organizations to be a meaningful developmental experience and found guided reflection to be beneficial. In addition to experiential service the students reviewed research articles reflecting on the positive and negative implications of service to others. The research provides a theoretical basis for the time commitment, identifying the long term benefits from participating in service to others.

Eyler and Baxton (1997) studied 1500 students in 20 colleges finding that those who participate in service learning differ in attitudes, skills, values and understanding of social issues. In response to the research a pre-service student stated: *"I agree with this attitude shift as I believe I have developed a better attitude towards serving my community with my service learning placement. I actually tutor students who have fallen behind in school and it has made my desire to help people even stronger."*

Prentice and Robinson (2010) observed that if faculty related the experience directly to the curriculum, the service learning increased the students learning in the course, teaching students to think critically and logically in real-life situations. Supporting this research a pre-service teacher reflected: *"I found myself having to*

think fast when a situation occurs at my service learning placement often over an issue I am not comfortable with." The student continued to describe the value of her experience developing empathy, compassion and an understanding of how to interact with diverse students.

Stavrianopoulos (2008) researched the impact of service learning on college freshmen finding benefits from sharing the experience as a group and car pooling to sites; with growth in personal and moral well-being; and increased levels of empathy and responsibility. Having this experience influenced students' abilities to prepare for their future careers, increasing their academic motivation and helped to develop an awareness of issues in society which students felt they can have some impact upon. This is exemplified by the pre-service teacher's reflection: *"I understand why my mentee is dependent upon me and the teachers. She does not have a stable home life...I am empathic towards her feelings and offer positive words to help her through the day."*

Chambers and Lavery (2012) stated that the service experience helps pre-service teachers to stay motivated and develop an understanding of real life experiences that can be applied to future teaching situations. This pre-service teacher supports the research findings stating: *"Our course is about discovering different culture and different worlds inside our own country that we never see when we are isolated at college, in the Midwest, or small towns. With service-learning, we are going into the real world and experiencing things that we do not see or hear about when we only hear it from our professors."*

Pre-service teachers found their experiential service learning to be rewarding and beneficial. One student stated: *"Service learning facilitates critical thinking and reflection on how experiences you have had relate to your life and also how they work to help others."*

Conclusion

CCBL provides an invaluable, efficient, and reliable service for students and faculty members coordinating and documenting experiential service learning opportunities. The pre-service teachers' experiential community service promotes meaningful interaction in preparation for teaching working in diverse classroom. The post survey responses demonstrate the positive outcomes from the out of class experiences. It is a challenge for students to go into inner city areas and work with diverse groups of children and young adults. Many of the pre-service teachers had no prior experience and do not know how to react to the life styles, cultures, and living conditions of the people they met. However, the outcomes and survey responses reflect gains to be personal, professional, and social reaffirming the benefits of the program. The pre-service teachers develop cultural awareness, empathy, self reliance, and skills they are able to apply to future teaching situations. The service learning component of the Human Relations course is a meaningful experience of mutual benefit for the pre-service teachers and the not-for-profit groups. In conclusion, in an era of media focused education it is imperative that pre-service teachers have out of class, person to person experiences to prepare for teaching in increasingly diverse schools, developing 21st century skills and civic literacy.

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THEORY IN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND PRACTICE IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Abstract

A problem in education, that has long concerned philosophers of education, is the problem of the relationship between theory and practice in educational research and practice. Despite the fact that much has been written on the relationship between theory and practice in education, it would seem that teachers continue to cling to an image of theory as incomprehensible “jargon” that has nothing to do with their everyday problems and concerns. This paper sets out to address this misconception by discussing the views of lecturers involved in teacher education on the place of theory in educational research and practice in teacher education.

Introduction

The aim of this paper is to discuss the views of lecturers involved in teacher education on the place of theory in educational research and practice in teacher education.

Theory plays an important role in determining the nature of educational research and practice in teacher education. It is, therefore, necessary to acknowledge the importance of theory in educational research and practice in teacher education, and also ascertain the influence that theory has on educational research and practice in teacher education. I would argue that theory seeks to emancipate teachers from their dependency on practices that are the product of ideological and political constructs while at the same time allowing teachers to critically reflect on their practice in the classroom. It does this by means of critical modes of enquiry that are aimed at exposing and examining the beliefs, assumptions and values implicit in ideological and political agendas which often determine how teachers organize their experiences and practices in the classroom. In the interests of best practice, it is therefore necessary for teachers to acquire the necessary theoretical astuteness, in order to interact critically with those cultural, political, social and economic concerns which impact either positively or negatively on their classroom practice.

This paper sets out to determine whether these sentiments are evidenced in the views of lecturers involved with teacher education programmes at three South African universities, namely, the University of South Africa, University of Stellenbosch and the University of the North West.

Background

There is a significant body of literature that discusses the role that theory plays in educational theory and practice in teacher education.

Darling-Hammond (2006: 8) notes: “One of the perennial dilemmas of teacher education is how to integrate theoretically based knowledge that has traditionally been taught in university classrooms with the experience-based knowledge that has traditionally been located in the practice of teachers and the realities of classrooms

and schools". In this context Chen et al (2010: 91) reveals that the quality of teacher education programmes can be improved only if the teacher educators help student teachers to identify the gap between teaching and theory and continually facilitate them in connecting their learnt theory and practice. Stofflert & Stoddart (1994) argue that without the necessary theoretical knowledge it is difficult challenge for teacher educators and researchers to change the training of teachers who teach in a traditional manner in order to change their educational practices. In this context Korthagen et al (2006) constructed the following theoretical framework for student teacher learning and program change in teacher education:

- Learning about teaching involves continuously conflicting and competing demands;
- Learning about teaching requires a view of knowledge as a subject to be created rather than as a created subject;
- Learning about teaching requires a shift from the curriculum to the learner;
- Learning about teaching is enhanced through (student) teacher research;
- Learning about teaching requires an emphasis on those learning to teach working closely with their peers;
- Learning about teaching requires meaningful relationships between schools, universities and student teachers;
- Learning about teaching is enhanced when the teaching and learning approaches advocated in the program are modelled by the teacher educators in their own practice.

Theory thus guides the research efforts of teacher educators and teachers in the sense that theoretical frameworks determine the problems that can be addressed by teacher educators, as well as, the adequacy of proposed solutions to these problems. In so doing, theory assists teacher educators and teachers to critically reflect on education policy issues that impact positively or negatively on best practice in the classroom. It is, therefore, important to recognise the role that theory can play in educational research and practice in teacher education. This means that teacher educators and teachers need to be aware of, and familiar with, the different theoretical frameworks that inform and shape educational theory and research in teacher education. Stated differently, it is necessary for teacher educators and teachers to recognise and be aware of the theoretical assumptions that influence the nature of educational theory and practice in teacher education in order to ascertain the impact of these assumptions on the theory and practice of teaching in the classroom. Such an awareness will instil in teacher educators and teachers a critical astuteness that will be concerned with determining the most effective, relevant and best, practice in the classroom, while at the same time ensuring that education practice is not directed by ideological and political concerns but rather by educational principles.

The Research Design

In setting about the aim of this paper, namely, to discuss the views of lecturers involved in teacher education on the place of theory in educational research and practice in teacher education, open ended questions were sent out by email to lecturers involved with teacher education programmes at three South African

universities, namely, the University of South Africa, University of Stellenbosch and the University of North West. The research questions posed were:

- What place does theory have in educational research and practice?
- Do you think that theory is important in educational research and practice, and if so, why?
- How can theory contribute to educational research and practice?
- What theory do you use in your educational research and practice and why?
- Should theory be included in the curriculum for teacher education, and if so how?

These questions were sent to fourteen lecturers and responses were received from seven lecturers.

Research Method

Narrative inquiry was used to interpret the findings accruing from the collected data in the form of the responses to the open ended questions that were concerned with:

- the identification of the role of theory in teacher education;
- an analysis of the theoretical assumptions that underlie the present practice of teacher education in South Africa;
- the impact that the theoretical assumptions that underlie the present practice of teacher education in South Africa have had on the teaching profession, education policy and classroom practice;
- improvements in the curriculum and teaching of theory in teacher education programmes.

Data Collection

The responses received from the seven lecturers were then listed and collated as follows:

1 What place does “theory” have in educational research and practice?

- “Theory plays a major part in all research. Without theory there will be no application – because what would you apply?”.
- The role of theory in research can be to generate hypotheses or explain phenomena. This should make theory an integral part of research.
- “.....there is a strong interrelationship between theory and research. For example, research may produce results that cause the theory to be revised, or rejected”.
- “Theory..... allows a researcher to be cognisant of the most recent and authoritative theories on a topic”.
- Educational research is or should be research guided by theory. Similarly, no practice can stand outside a theoretical position, and therefore is not devoid of theory.
- “Theory plays a critical and creative role in educational research and practice”.
- “Theory already plays an important role in educational practice. Most of what is being done is already theory-based”.

2 Do you think that theory is important in educational research and practice, and if so, why?

- “The importance of theory in educational research and practice cannot be over emphasised”.
- “Yes, it is very important. Theory helps to explain how certain educational phenomena occur. For example, it clarifies why certain education policies come into being and how they affect all those involved”.
- “Theory is important as it provides a lens through which to understand the research envisaged and provides a framework to develop a deeper understanding of practice”.
- “....theory is used to generate conceptual models, which are often represented as graphical figures that display variables and their interrelationships”.
- “...theory provides educational research and practice with a critical framework for dealing with educational problems”.

3 How can theory contribute to educational research and practice?

- “Theory is the foundation and backbone of all research, theoretical or empirical”.
- “Theory can be used to explain why certain aspects of educational practice are problematic or successful”.
- “The contribution of theory is that it has a level of generality and can be used in most research projects and practice”.
- The application of theory can reduce the possibility of making incorrect instructional decisions in teacher education.
- “Theory assists researchers and teachers to critically reflect on education policy and classroom practice in attempting to ensure best education practice”.

4 What theory do you use in your educational research and practice, and why?

- “I often use System theory. Another theory that I often use is Constructivism, because the context of knowledge development is very important especially with research in the SA environment”.
- “I use theories which are in line with modern trends in educational research and practice such as post-modernism, African philosophy and critical theory”.
- “I use theories that are compatible with the emerging paradigm, for example Critical theory and Social Constructivism. The main reason of using these theories is that they consider knowledge as a social construct and reject the notion that human behaviour is a social construct”.
- “I use Critical Social Theory in my research and practice”.
- “I always use the most relevant conceptual framework/s for the topic under investigation”.
- “I use a pluralistic (postmodern) approach to theory because the application of theory is contextually determined”.

- “In our projects we use a variety of theories, depending on the problem that are researched”.

5 Should theory be included in the curriculum for teacher education, and if so, how?

- “I feel strongly about the inclusion of theory in the curriculum”.
- “Prospective teachers have to be aware of the different theories and how they can assist them to understand or question some of the decisions made about their practice”.
- “Yes. Theory must be situated in the context of the novice teachers own teaching”.
- “Theory should be included in a way that provides a theoretical basis to think about the classroom, and to relate classroom experiences to known theory”.
- “Definitely. Students should be exposed to different theories, such as learning theories”.
- Yes. Theory should be included in the curriculum for teacher education. Prospective teachers have to be aware of the different theories and how they can assist them to understand or question some of the decisions made about their practice.
- “Theory should be included in the curriculum for teacher education. At undergraduate level and post graduate level”.

Summation of Responses

The responses of the seven lecturers to the open ended questions revealed the following:

1 What place does theory have in educational research and practice?

The lecturers revealed significant agreement in their responses to the place of theory in educational research and practice. It is clear from the responses that theory plays a critical and creative role in educational research and practice. All the lecturers agreed that there is a strong relationship between theory and practice.

2 Do you think that theory is important in educational research and practice, and if so, why?

All the lecturers agreed that theory in educational research and practice cannot be overemphasised and yes, theory in educational research and practice is very important. Reasons provided to substantiate this claim are:

- theory helps to explain how certain educational phenomena occur, it clarifies why and how education policies come into being;
- theory provides a lens through which to understand the research envisaged and provides a framework to develop a deeper understanding of practice;
- theory provides education research and practice with a critical framework for dealing with education problems.

3 How can theory contribute to educational research and practice?

Theory can be used to explain why certain aspects of education practice are problematic or successful. Theory helps us to question the decisions made about

education by those in authority. The best theory for research and practice should have significance and should be able to make a difference to how we view the world. The application of theory can reduce the possibility of making incorrect instructional decisions in teacher education. Theory assists researchers and teachers to critically reflect on education policy and classroom practice in attempting to ensure best education practice. Theory assists researchers with a clearer understanding of a research problem.

4 What theory do you use in your educational research and practice and why?

It is interesting to note that the respondents all use different theories in their educational research and practice, for example: some lecturers use Post Modernism, African Philosophy and Critical Theory; other lecturers use Social Constructivism. All the lecturers, however, agreed that the educational problem and the research question that they are concerned with determines the theory they select to assist them to solve that particular problem.

5 Should theory be included in the curriculum for teacher education, and if so how?

All respondents agreed that theory should be included in the curriculum for teacher education. They argued that students should be aware of the different theories used in education research and practice and how these theories can assist them to understand or question decisions made about best practice in the classroom. Theory can also assist them to think critically about their own classroom practice. As far as the curriculum is concerned, at undergraduate level, theory should be introduced at a general level which exposes students to various theoretical frameworks that can be used in critically reflecting on education policy and practice. At postgraduate level, students should be encouraged to identify, master and critically reflect on a theory that they will use in researching an educational problem in their postgraduate studies.

Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to discuss the views of lecturers involved in teacher education on the place of theory in educational research and practice in teacher education. From the responses received to the open ended questions sent out to teacher educators it became evident that these lecturers believed that theory was important in educational research and practice in teacher education and that theory should be included in the curriculum for teacher education so that teachers may acquire a critical disposition in addressing problems that they encounter in education policy and the classroom.

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COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LEARNING STYLES IN HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS FROM THE HIDALGO STATE AUTONOMOUS UNIVERSITY, IN MEXICO

Abstract

This is a study on learning styles based on the Kolb model (1984). It was conducted on a sample of Mexican higher education students, to develop a picture of their learning styles at three different stages during their studies. The intention was to determine whether there were differences between students majoring in educational sciences and law, during the initial, intermediate and final semesters. The sample included 212 students aged 18 to 25 years from the Hidalgo State Autonomous University. All students responded to the Kolb Learning Style Inventory and a demographics questionnaire. The paper presents this research project's first results. There were differences found in learning styles across programs and semesters. Results are discussed from the Kolb approach on experiential learning.

Keywords: learning styles, Kolb's model, higher education

Introduction

With the new wave of educational reforms that began in the 1990s, there has been an emphasis in research on knowledge acquisition methods. From basic to higher education the talk of the town is on strategies, metacognition or cognitive skills. These strategies tend to be organized and conditioned by factors of which the degree of incidence is uncertain, thus creating for each learner a peculiar way of acting regarding his or her own knowledge construction. This form of preferential learning is what Schmeck (1988) calls learning style.

The purpose of this study was to identify the learning styles of a group of students from the Educational Sciences and Law degree programs at the Hidalgo State Autonomous University (UAEH, acronym in Spanish) to learn about existing differences, by program and semester (initial, middle and final), based on the Kolb model (1984).

We know that students develop different ways of learning according to previous experiences and the cultural context in which they acquired them. The subjects of this study completed high school in institutions from different communities that work with different systems, a situation that marks important differences in the appropriation of new knowledge at the time of entering college.

The paper has four sections: the first one presents Kolb's theoretical postulates on experiential learning, then the methodology, the results and discussion, ending with the conclusions.

Theoretical Framework

Several models have been developed to explain learning styles from different perspectives. This paper is based on Kolb's (1984: 133) experiential learning, which was developed by drawing from multiple paradigms that emphasize experience as central to knowledge acquisition, focusing primarily on human learning.

Kolb initially departs from a rationalist position, then he focuses on a behaviorist explanation to finally assume a constructivist model that draws on personal experiences as a source for the development and enrichment of learning (Canales, 1991).

This theory provides the foundations for an approach to education and learning as a lifelong process that is firmly established in the traditions of social psychology, philosophy and cognitive psychology (Kolb, 1984: 140).

The experiential learning model aims to establish a framework for examining and strengthening the key link between education and professional development. It views classroom work as a learning environment that provides experiences under which learning is significantly consolidated. It stresses the role of formal education in developing the potential of individuals as citizens, family members and human beings and the importance of meaningful learning in personal development processes.

Kolb mentions some features that are necessary for understanding his model's approach: Learning is best understood as a process, not in terms of results, it is a continuous process based on experience, a holistic adaptation to the world in order to create knowledge. It is a process that requires conflict resolution between dialectically opposing modes of adaptation to the world involving transactions between the individual and the environment.

The learning styles model presents two basic dimensions for learning: perception and processing. Learning is the product of the way in which we perceive and then the processing of what was perceived.

Kolb describes two forms of perception, both opposing: perception takes place either through concrete experience or abstract conceptualization. In processing, he also found two opposite forms: first is active experimentation, and second, reflective observation (Davies & Lowe, 2009).

From the interaction between the two forms of perceiving and the two forms of processing, Kolb describes his model in four quadrants, which represent the interactions that take place when learning happens. The horizontal axis identifies the doing and watching, which is called the continuous processing and how to "transform the experience". The vertical axis identifies the feelings and thoughts which are also known as the continuous perception axis.

Thus, our learning style is a product of deciding between two options: 1) How to assimilate experience choosing whether "to observe or to do"; 2) The emotional response to the experience that transforms it choosing either to think or to feel.

The combination of these two choices results in four learning styles: Accommodators (concrete experience and active experimentation); Divergers (concrete experience and reflective observation); Convergers (abstract conceptualization and active experimentation); and Assimilators (abstract conceptualization and reflective observation).

Method

The methodology used was quantitative, descriptive and cross-cutting. Information was retrieved through two instruments: the most recent version of the Kolb Learning Style Inventory and a demographic data questionnaire.

The instruments were administered to 105 students from the Bachelor's Degree in Educational Sciences and 107 from the Law Degree program at the Hidalgo State Autonomous University. 67% of them female and 33% male, ranging from 17 to 29 years of age.

Study participants were studying in six of the nine semesters of each degree program. Three ranges were formed, each with 35 to 40 students: the first with students from the 1st and 2nd semesters, the second from 4th and 5th and the third with students from the 8th and 9th semesters. In this way it was possible to compare the results on the learning styles for the initial, middle and final semesters of each program.

Results

Characterization of the Population in the Study

Most people, according to the ideas of Kolb, Rubin and McIntyre (1977), develop learning styles based, other theories aside, on some learning skills. These are the result of the hereditary apparatus, of one's own experiences and the demands of the cultural environment. Learning is the result of the transaction between the social knowledge which represents the accumulated cultural experience and personal knowledge. Hence the importance of presenting a characterization of the population that took part in the study.

In the State of Hidalgo, Mexico, there is a wide range of municipalities with populations showing different cultural characteristics. 23.27% of the population are indigenous and speak different languages: Nahuatl 68%, followed by Otomi 29.7% and Tepehua 0.5%. Students from both programs differ in their place of origin, 44% of Education students come from different municipalities, compared to only 15% of Law students. While they are attending college, the difference becomes smaller: 90% of Education and 85% of Law students live in Pachuca (the State capital). 54% of Education students' fathers work in a trade while in Law it drops to 39%. 63% of Education students' mothers are homemakers. 19% of Law students' mothers completed an undergraduate degree while only 9.5% did so in the case of Education. Fathers who have college education rank at 17.1% for Education and 22.4% for Law. 39% of Education students completed their high school programs in technical schools, while only 21% of Law students attended these institutions and 40% of them come from high schools ascribed to the UAEH.

Learning Styles

The learning style which most participants identified themselves with was the Assimilator, with 57.5% of Law and 40% of Education students in the first two semesters of their programs. This style is dominated by abstract conceptualization and reflective observation. Its greatest strength lies in the ability to create theoretical models. Assimilators are noted for their inductive reasoning, in integrating contrasting observations into a comprehensive explanation.

In students from the 8th and 9th semesters this style drops in both programs to 34%. This learning style is considered by Kolb suitable for professionals in research and planning departments, which are important components in the curricula for both programs.

Educational Science students from the final semesters registered the highest percentage of study participants that identified themselves with the Accommodator learning style with 43.8% compared to 34.4% of Law students. This style is characterized by concrete experience and active experimentation. Its greatest strength lies in doing things, developing projects and experiments, as well as engaging in new learning experiences. These people have a tendency to find themselves in situations in which they have to adapt to specific immediate circumstances. Their formation is usually oriented toward technical or practical applications, activities that are found in the Education program's final semesters.

Among the group of students in intermediate semesters the Divergent style presents its highest percentage with 31% in Education and 28.5% in Law. People who better perform in concrete experience and reflective observation fit into this style. Their greatest strength is their imaginative capacity, and are noted for their ability to look at concrete situations from multiple perspectives. Within this style Kolb (1977) places executives with backgrounds in the humanities and liberal arts.

The Convergent style reported lower percentages in both programs, only 14% in Education and 12% in Law for all study participants. In Education it presents an increase between the first semesters from 15% to 17% in the intermediate but it then drops to 2.8% in the final semesters. In Law this style shows a constant average for the three ranges, 12% for the initial, 11.4% for the intermediate and 12.5% for the final semesters. The greatest strength of this style lies in the practical application of ideas. People with this style seem to perform better in situations such as conventional intelligence tests where a single correct answer or solution is presented for each question or problem. Their knowledge is organized so they can focus on specific problems using hypothetical deductive reasoning, and it is associated with students and professionals in technological and exact sciences. Actually this learning style has little to do with the curricula and teaching practices of both of the programs studied.

The subjects that students consider easy or difficult showed to have no relation to the learning styles, but instead to the way in which the curriculum is developed for each program. However, the relationship lies in the type of content that is studied in the initial, intermediate and final semesters.

Conclusions and Final Discussion

The results reflect different aspects and characteristics of the study population at different points in their studies through 3 of the learning styles proposed by Kolb which respond to the curricular context they are immersed in, the social stimuli they are exposed to, as well as to their physical and emotional responses when understanding new information.

It is interesting to note that in Education students, of whom 44% come from other municipalities, accommodators and assimilators are the two predominant learning styles during the initial and final semesters. Lewin's model of laboratory training and action (Kolb, 1984: 8-10) may explain this through some group

dynamic techniques that facilitate learning, change and growth by the means of an integrated process that begins with an experience of the here and now, that is followed by a collection of data or observations about the experience. It is possible that in these students' places of origin, such forms of knowledge appropriation may be widely applied.

The results are explained by some of the salient aspects of the model: the first being the value given to the immediate concrete experience for validating and testing abstract concepts, the second aspect highlights the feedback process which provides the basis for a continuing process of action directed towards the goal as well as the assessment of the consequences of such action.

It is important for teachers to know the learning styles of their students to diversify their teaching strategies in the classroom and improve the level of learning appropriation among their students. For teachers, to learn how students learn allows them to strengthen those areas that present weaknesses for assimilating knowledge from different approaches.

To learn more about the models that have enriched Kolb's own model facilitates understanding new concepts consistently emerging in curricular models developed in higher education institutions. Undoubtedly as Lewin, Dewey and Piaget's principles strengthen the Kolb model, they do so as well for "innovative" approaches in education. Those old ideas are refreshing these days.

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EQUITY AND COMPETITIVENESS: CONTRADICTIONS BETWEEN THE IDENTIFICATION OF EDUCATIONAL SKILLS AND EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENTS

Abstract

As a starting point, this paper raises various questions to explain the teaching conditions that exist in rural communities and the learning conditions faced by children assigned to the rural community education mode. Equity and competitiveness are the conceptual axis used in the descriptive construction a documentary analysis and my personal experience in Rural Communitarian Educational programs are the methodological strategies used to present this work.

Introduction

The complexity of the geographical, ethnic, cultural and socioeconomic diversity that characterizes Mexico, as a Latin American country, reflects a variety of requirements to which the various governmental offices and other type of organizations have to respond. The Mexican Educational System also reflects this organizational complexity because the needs and living conditions of the population require a diversified attention.

In addition to the educational levels: Basic, High School University and Postgraduate studies, there are different types of educational programs that seek to respond to educational needs of the population, i.e. indigenous, adult, “*Telesecundaria*”, distance education, rural education, migrant and community education. In the case of the basic education¹ (preschool, primary and secondary studies), we can identify rural community models characterized by multigrade and multilevel. Such programs are offered in 31 states of the 32 that form Mexico (CONAFE, 2008).

During the last three decades, educational reforms have tried, among other things, to guarantee equity for everyone, thus giving equal opportunities of access, permanence and conclusion of studies; by compensating those differences affecting the most vulnerable population. Those reforms also show an interest in competitiveness emphasizing the development of competences, so that students may acquire them to face modern life situations (Elizondo *et al.*, 2006; Bracho & Hernández, 2012).

Some of the questions that served as axis for this essay are the following: should Education directed to vulnerable people be different than that of privileged urban population? Should this type of second class education be directed to students who are considered belonging to a second class population? (Torres & Tenti, 2000).

¹ The organization of time and age is distributed as follows: preschool – lasting three years and children’s ages ranging from 3-5 years; elementary school – lasting six years for children from six to eleven years and eleven months, and secondary school – lasting three years for children from twelve to fourteen years and eleven months.

Which are the conditions where educational processes are being held with this type of population? Does Rural Communitarian Education offer any strategies to make possible the development of competences that will go beyond that rural context?

Purpose and Methodology Basis

These questions serve to identify those teaching and learning conditions of children that belong to the Rural Communitarian Educational model. As a methodological strategy, I made a documentary analysis and also based myself in my own thirteen years' experience in Mexico's rural communitarian schools. I also visited some schools which work under the New School Colombian Model ("*Escuela Nueva de Colombia*") in that South American country which uses the same educational principles.

Analytical Considerations

The analytical categories are: equality with equity, pertinence and competitiveness. Equality with equity is identified as the various possibilities that guarantee the entrance to Education, that is, the educational offer, and the differentiated models. Pertinence is defined as the identification of programs that correspond to the socio-cultural and economic conditions of the people to which they are directed, and that satisfy the need and problems of the population. Competitiveness refers to the definition of contents and teaching strategies that focus in the learning situations and the acquisition of competences (knowledge, values, attitudes and abilities). Competitiveness also demands that the population has the necessary and sufficient knowledge to have access to other educational levels, both in its own context as well as in other national and international levels.

Discussion and Analysis

Rural Educational Context

Once again, at the beginning of the administrative presidential period (2012-2018) a new reform to the basic education becomes the center of attention of public politics in which the quality and the production of knowledge are the pillars that support production and the sustainable development of the most vulnerable zones of the country. Its enforcement and success depends mainly on the teachers because it requires an appropriation of the educational approach that should be congruent and pertinent, in order to offer the same learning results and improve the ability and knowledge of students (Gajardo & Jiménez, 2009).

We can mention in the case of the Rural Communitarian Education, that although it is not considered explicitly in the Educational Reform, it contains a firm educational model designed in the nineteen seventies and that has been improved with different research works.

In order to consider the articulation of these programs to the public politics, we must not forget that those programs are centered in the search for equity in those zones of low educational development. These programs must present pedagogic innovations and changes in the educational exertion in order to give a solution to the educational residue that formal education leaves in forgotten zones in our country

(De la Torre, 2012). In this sense, starting at the intermediate level, one of the strategies that overcome the educational deficiencies and develop emergent themes is the Summer Community Tutors Program. The tutors are youngsters who study at High School or university levels and do activities for the educational transformation, among them, the regularization of students (De la Torre, 2012).

I shall briefly make reference to the international organizations that play an important role in the development of these programs because they define Mexican educational politics, and other educational politics in Latin America, taking into consideration the research work and the recommendations directed to the search of equality and educational homogenization. For example, the World Bank's interest for social topics is based on the fact that money invested on poor people is not only due to humanitarian purposes but that it is a very profitable business. Thus, the World Bank has become the principal financial source for developing countries (Maldonado, 2000). For that reason, it is important to bear in mind that this banking organization is one of the main producers of documents and a source that generates educational public politics and compensatory programs that overthrow the action of different sectors, especially the educational one.

Equity Conditions in Rural Communitarian Education

To think of equity as the axis of the scale in the educational offer implies to have as a starting point a diversified option in which the contextual and economic conditions make a difference to offer education for the most vulnerable persons, "so that social and economical minimal inequality is just when it benefits those in disadvantage in the social structure and are found in the free and indiscriminative competition of the social positions (Rawls, 2000). In this sense, an educational compensatory program focused as is the case of the Rural Communitarian Education is justified when it identifies those groups, schools or individuals that are kept away from the rest" (Bracho & Hernandez, 2011).

The above allows me to state that the educational model for small rural populations continues to be the educational program that uses as a basis the economic, social and cultural differences for educational purposes (CONAFE, 2012). This model is organized using a multilevel curricular structure, wherein is possible to work similar themes but for different educational levels; with students of different ages and different learning levels. The questioning of the youngest or of those in disadvantage allows students with higher levels of knowledge to practice their competences when monitoring the activities of their fellow students in order to enhance their learning competences². Equity can also be considered in the "uneven organization of activities", that is, under the school conditions climate that is the scenario for student activities: children may stand up when they require it, use any material they need for their activities and exchange opinions during class, because discipline enforcement is not considered as having to be silent. The teacher is only guides the children's activities and helps them, when necessary.

² The educational basis of this model corresponds to Vigotsky's Socio-cultural theory that is equivalent to the constructivist model of competences used in national and international educational systems.

Competitiveness and competences in Rural Communitarian Education

Educational systems, in general, have established a series of mechanisms where individuality and students' characteristics give way to the imperative need to comply the established standards by the international organizations (Simone & Hersh, 2004). Thus, the educational achievement indicator's identification is present when designing programs and also in the curricula of the various educational levels which are verifiable by applying standardized examinations as: PISA, ENLACE or ESCALE and simultaneously they cause tension between the educational achievement and the development of competences for life, because the latter must generate a reflexive critical attitude in students. In this sense, competences are pedagogical devices that offer the conditions for children and youngsters find some sense in their scholastic learning and build their knowledge according to their needs as persons and social individuals. That is:

When adopting a pedagogy for the construction of knowledge and the acquisition of competences, the school hopes to reduce the volume of "dead knowledge" favoring "living knowledge", that knowledge is so well integrated [in the individual] that is used and enrich during the whole life. [...] to acquire a competence is, simply, to learn to what one ignores, by doing it (Denyer *et al.*, 2002: 31).

Thus, to confirm the dominion of a competence, a person must have the capacity and the elements to face a new and complex situation in which several types of knowledge are present "by doing, and doing it knowledgeably". That includes moral values and ideological positions, attitudinal conditions, historical basis, communicative strategies, procedural abilities and posses some notions to identify and search for answers, among others.

In relation to the Rural Communitarian Education, we can state that the theoretical and methodological conceptions in their programs and their performance in the school space show that the process of knowledge acquisition takes place in that context (CONAFE, 2007). The articulation between the attitudinal and cognitive contents allows students identify those procedural and factual contents. Nevertheless, when they are evaluated from an "educational achievement" perspective, the efficiency index shown by these programs are usually below the national average. For example when considering the global results in the mathematical examination of ENLACE³ 2012 (SEP, 2012) we observe that in elementary schools, both in communitarian and indigenous education, most students (78.2% and 71% respectively), reach the lowest levels (sufficient and elementary) in the educational achievement, while in regular public elementary schools, this result is slightly below (53.6%) and it is still lower in private schools (34.5%) where better educational conditions prevail.

³ This evaluation is applied in all elementary and secondary schools in Mexico with the purpose of evaluating, every year, the students' knowledge acquisition both in Spanish and Mathematics. The other different subjects are applied by turns every year: Natural Science (2012), Geography (2011) and Civic and ethical education (2010). All questions are based in the present academic programs. For this example, the information corresponds to Hidalgo State in Mexico (SEP, 2012).

It is still more worrisome the result in the Spanish area (competence in written language) because the “insufficient” and “elementary” levels rise: in communitarian education (83.9%), in the indigenous one (77%), in the regular public schools (58.1%) and in private schools (30.4%), keeping the same previous relationship that the former.

By looking at these results, it is possible to state that it certain that a second class education is being to the most vulnerable population in our country. Nevertheless, other questions are simultaneously raised, that must be deeply analyzed⁴. Do standardized examinations evaluate the dominance or achievement of competences for life? Are standardized examinations a referent to raise the quality of education?

In the performance of the Rural Communitarian Education program it is possible to identify some other aspects that are not considered in the standardized evaluation such as: the importance of communitarian participation in the educational teaching process and the strong collaboration of the teaching instructors regarding the needs of the community, which are a reflection of the acquisition of competences for life, because inhabitants of that community, children included, solve communitarian problems when they appear. This shows a collaborative task which is not measured in the standardized evaluations, but that involve the “knowledge to do” and “the doing with knowledge”.

Some Conclusions

Considering the equity axis, it was possible to identify that, in searching to equalize opportunities to obtain the education access; some special differentiated programs have been elaborated according to the social, economic and cultural conditions of vulnerable groups.

When conditions demand an uneven approach to improve access to education, contents and educational handling must be different, that is, the teaching instructor must act according to the cognitive requirements of vulnerable groups.

The majority of communitarian educational groups use their natural context in order to have learning scenarios that promote communitarian participation, which is an essential element for the acquisition of competences.

The standardized evaluations must contain some indicators or strategies by which it is possible to measure the acquisition of competences.

Educational politics must bear in mind the experiences which arise in the Rural Communitarian Education in order to improve the acquisition of competences for life and to extend those experiences throughout the country.

Educational politics more inclusive and sustainable must be designed in order to change palliative answers given by international organizations to the arising problems of vulnerable groups.

⁴ Other studies have been made of PISA evaluation. For example, see Díaz-Barriga, 2006.

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ADULT READING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: A NECESSARY COMPETENCE FOR KNOWLEDGE SOCIETY

Abstract

This paper presents several “tips” for Spanish speaking adults who start a reading comprehension course in English. The document is the product of my twenty-five years of experience as a language teacher. By using these practical pieces of advice, learners understand the differences between English and their own language, are able read, and to produce their personal reading strategies in order to succeed when reading English texts, and simultaneously, they feel their learning stress is diminished.

By making the necessary adjustments, these reading hints may be applied to different languages especially Romance language teachers, who may create their own version to help students in their reading task.

Introduction

Because most nations have opened their doors worldwide to tourism and commerce, the need to communicate with people from different countries has increased to such an extent that foreign languages, especially English (Valenti, Avaro & Casalet, 2008), are now being taught in many elementary schools in Mexico, both public and private. At present, our educational authorities have considered necessary the teaching of English as a second language (L2), from elementary school up to university levels (Manzano, 2007).

People that handle English have better job opportunities because they read, write and use that language fluently (Phillips, 2003). International enterprises are nowadays hiring English speaking persons with better salaries, either to work here in Mexico or to be sent abroad to their company’s offices, being conscious that their employees will be able to communicate successfully.

Presentation of the problem

In order to graduate at any university in our country, Mexico, two requirements must be fulfilled before a thesis paper is accepted and the Graduation Examination takes place. It is compulsory for a student to do social service work in a governmental or public academic institution, during a period ranging from six months to two years. They also have to present a foreign language reading comprehension examination.

Those persons who have not had equal learning opportunities or were not exposed to English as children, have more difficulties in satisfying this second requirement. They struggle to learn the English language and reading comprehension becomes their learning starting point (Mihara, 2011).

If one is asked to define the word *reading*, different answers may come to mind. But one that satisfies me is: “*Reading is a dynamic and associative mental process*” (Ramírez, 2009). It is a complex task that demands much attention because a person

is in contact with two kinds of written words: *sight words*, and *meaningful words*. *Sight words* can be easily recognized because of their shape, while *meaningful words* “transmit” ideas. A decision has to be made by the reader regarding the method to be used in order to be successful. When reading a text, one may approach all words without considering their separate elements, or approach them by paying attention to every component part of a word (Alliende & Condemarin, 1993).

Once the chosen methodology has been successfully practiced, the reader will be mentally able to link words and sentences to grasp the message transmitted by the text and integrate it to his previous knowledge; this will modify or reinforce his social or cultural ideas.

Reading English at an adult stage is hard (Sousa, 2002) for Spanish-speaking people who have had only basic notions of that L2 language. On the one hand, adults are self-conscious of the fact that they do not have enough vocabulary because they find themselves forced to use the dictionary for almost every word they encounter; on the other, their vocabulary does not correspond to the one they usually handle in their mother tongue. Because they are able to read fluently in their own language, they want to approach the L2 text in a similar manner. So, when failing to understand the written message, they blame their reading clumsiness mainly on their scarce amount of vocabulary, unconsciously ignoring that they are lacking reading strategies that may easily be learned (Manzano, 2007; Day & Bamford, 1997).

In my experience as an English teacher, once Spanish-speaking adults grasp the way in which they should “visually jump back and forth” in order to establish the L2 word order and transfer it to the reader’s mother language, reading becomes easy and fun and the learning stress disappears.

At the beginning of a course I usually ask students: Why do you want to fit a foreign language text into your mother tongue’s structure or function? Remember that languages, like people, have their own characteristics, and those may be considered their personality. Eventually, they are convinced to try and use some strategies of their own in order to read fluently.

Proposed strategies for the appropriation of the written language

In spite of the various phonetic changes it has suffered, English has kept the original etymological graphic use of words, whereas Spanish (and also Italian), have altered their original etymological writing (Alliende & Condemarin, 1993, p. 84), to create a phonetic and graphic correspondence.

As there is a scarce correspondence between the distinctive writing units and phonemes in English, it may be advisable to approach all words without paying too much attention to their particular elements, to facilitate the reading task.

To solve reading problems, students use some of the “tips” given below to assist themselves in their learning chores. Although there are several other elements that may be used when reading, I have found that those given below are easier to remember. Here are fifteen simple pieces of advice.

First, and most important, is this one directed to teachers. It refers to class environmental learning. Students must feel at ease with both, the teacher and their classmates, especially those persons who have tried to learn English and have been unsuccessful. The reason for their failure may be that they have classmates who have a higher knowledge of that language and their protagonist role in class does not

allow others to participate. For that reason, a person less competent in English, becomes self-conscious and, either remains silent, or bashfully refuses to read. For that reason, it is of the outmost importance that an appropriate environment prevails and all students have the same opportunities to read.

Second, the teacher must be *another student* in class. He should only guide his “classmates” when they require it, and suggest, but never impose, reading strategies.

Third, texts in reading courses should not be written by teachers for class purposes, because adults can detect if a text belongs to the “real world” source or not. This is the reason why reading material should contain brief, interesting articles taken from scientific, humanistic or cultural publications containing a low degree of difficulty (which will eventually increase). Needless to stress the fact that coherence between the reading material and any pertaining questions is of the outmost importance.

Fourth, recognize “cognates”. They are “transparent” words having the same meaning, but missing a letter or two, or having one or two extra ones. It is possible to infer the meaning of a word when it is written almost with the same letters in both languages. Two examples: *arte* means “art” and *estudiante* means “student”. But one should beware of “false cognates”, that is, words that look similar in both languages, but convey a completely different meaning, i.e. *policy*, which some people wrongly translate as *police*.

Fifth, in my opinion, all human beings think alike but express their thoughts in a different manner and with different vocabulary. One should always bear in mind that, when reading a sentence or a paragraph, it should make sense. If it doesn’t or lacks coherence when it is being transferred from L2 to one’s own language, the reason may be that a different meaning has been assigned by the reader to a word or phrase. By this I mean that the person’s *inference* goes way too far from the message the text is conveying. If this seems to be the problem, then one should try to look up in the dictionary, those “familiar” words one “seems” to know, because they may be false cognates. Very often, according to its location, a word or phrase may transmit a totally different idea than it does when it is placed in a different context. So once a student is aware that it is not a sign of *weakness* to consult the dictionary to understand the correct meaning, he will keep on doing that and succeed in understanding the written material.

Sixth, because of their complexity, irregular verbs should be learned well but never in a list form. They should appear in familiar contexts, that is, students should be able to read them because they are meaningful words when presented in everyday situations; and, when necessary, they may be accompanied by a brief explanation of their role in a sentence.

Seventh, because adjectives are used in Spanish after nouns, one must remember that, in English adjectives (regardless of the number that appears), always come before a noun.

Eighth, below are several hints regarding verbs ending in “ing” (gerunds). People should bear in mind that some words with that ending, may seem to be nouns, but they actually function as adjectives by being placed before a noun. Here is an example of both uses: This *evening* is her Prom (graduation dance), so she must wear an *evening* dress. The first word evening is used as a noun and the second, as an adjective.

Verbs in English, ending in “ing”, when placed at the beginning of a sentence correspond in Spanish to the infinitive form: *Eating too much is bad for you*: *comer mucho es malo para ti*.

But they may also “act” as nouns: “Their *singing* was awful”

If “ing” words are accompanied by the verb to be (in any tense), they *are* verbs: “They were *eating* a banana.”

Ninth, remember that in Spanish, verbs already include the pronoun, so it doesn’t have to be repeated. For example, *juego*, means, I play, but it also can be that *juego* is used as a noun, meaning “game”.

Tenth, adverbs are inserted between the pronoun and the verb, that is: I *always* play in the morning, whereas in Spanish, because our verb already shows the corresponding pronoun, as is the case of *juego*, the sentence may start with the adverb *Siempre* and the verb *juego* shows the word already includes the first person singular.

If an “ing” word is accompanied the verb to be, no matter how this verb is conjugated, then that ‘ing’ word functions as a verb: “He will be **playing** the piano.” But it also functions as a noun: “their **singing** was awful!”

Eleventh, all regular verbs conjugated in past tense end in *ed*, regardless of the person who is speaking.

Twelfth, when auxiliary verbs are being conjugated, they show the tense in which the sentence is presented. Very often people say: “I didn’t **ate** the cookies” when they try to give examples of past tense verbs. Therefore, the use of the present tense for the action verb accompanying the auxiliary, must be remembered: I **didn’t** do my homework.

Thirteenth, verbs like “do” and “have” function both as auxiliary and regular verbs. The following examples show the way they are used: “I **don’t** like to do homework on weekends” and “I *have* eaten too much and *have* a stomach ache.”

“Have”, followed by “to” is also used as *must* (obligation): “I *have to* finish this paper for tomorrow.” (I *must* finish this paper for tomorrow).

Fourteenth, “English is easier to learn than Spanish”. By looking at examples such as: In Spanish we use adjectives according to their gender and number. For example the word *bello* (or *hermoso*) means “beautiful” while in English the adjective does not. If one is talking about a child, that person uses the same adjective regardless of gender or number, whereas in Spanish, a person would have to use the adjective *bello* for a boy, *bella* for a girl, *bellos* for two or more boys and *bellas* for two or more girls. So, it is advisable to stress the fact that one does not have to worry about gender and number regarding adjectives.

Conclusions

Teaching reading strategies in a foreign language (whether English, French, Italian or Spanish, among others), and presenting a text through situational teaching, is giving students the possibility to be immersed in “familiar learning situations” which they will recognize immediately.

Texts should be chosen carefully according to the students’ requirements and they must be meaningful, interesting and relevant.

The vocabulary presented in the teaching material must be simple at the beginning of the course in order to reduce the learning stress, and it should increase its difficulty as the course continues.

Courses should be taught having the teacher playing the role of one more student in class, being a person who helps his classmates to understand the basic learning process of reading a text.

It must be remembered that a word usually has several meanings and the reader must find the correct one for the text be coherent.

Both, students and teachers must always be respectful of their classmates' mistakes by omitting the attitude of someone who expects a grown-up perfection when a person reads.

Errors should be empathically corrected, bearing in mind that students have already noticed their failure and expect a respectful attitude.

To motivate and convince students that they are able to read a text in a foreign language with the very little amount of vocabulary they have, is to, psychologically, forcing them to read, even if, at first, the student makes numerous mistakes.

By using the tips given above, one may state that adults are capable to read a foreign language and infer the meaning of unknown words, because they will develop their own learning strategies by comparing the knowledge acquired during their life, to the reading situations that are presented in texts.

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ZVIA MARKOVITS & SADIK KARTAL**THE TEACHING PROFESSION AS SEEN BY PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS:
A COMPARISON STUDY OF ISRAEL AND TURKEY****Abstract**

608 pre-service teachers from Israel and from Turkey, in their first year and in their fourth (and last) year of study, were asked to complete a questionnaire in order to explore the reasons that led them to choose teaching as their career and to reveal their beliefs regarding several aspects of the status of the teaching profession. Results show some similarities as well as some differences between pre-service teachers in Israel and Turkey as well as between first year and fourth year pre-service teachers in both countries.

Introduction

Teaching is complex and good teachers are needed to cope with the huge challenges this profession requires. In spite of the need for high quality teachers in the educational system, the salary teachers are paid is not high and in many countries the status of the teaching profession is low. How these issues affect students' willingness to choose teaching as their career? What are the characteristics pre-service teachers use to define good teachers? In this study we aim to reveal beliefs held by pre-service teachers from Israel and Turkey regarding the status of the teaching profession in their country and the characteristics they use to define a 'good teacher'. Moreover we aim to explore their reasons for choosing to become teachers and to look into the changes they think should be done in the educational system in their country.

There is a large body of research focusing on the reasons for choosing a teaching career. Students choose teaching as their career for different reasons. The literature (for example, Moran et al., 2001; Low et al., 2011) suggests altruistic reasons (seeing teaching as a mission or a desire to work with children), extrinsic reasons (relating to remuneration and job security) and intrinsic factors (personal growth and other opportunities that the teaching job might offer). Korb (2010) investigated reasons for choosing teaching among 406 students in order to evaluate the widespread belief that students choose teaching as a last resort career. He found that the two top reasons for choosing the teaching profession were to shape the future of children and to make social contribution. Only 18% of the participants explicitly reported that they choose teaching as a last resort.

The status of the teaching profession receives attention all over the world. A research which investigated the status of teachers and the teaching profession in England (Hargreaves, et al., 2006), surveyed the public opinion, the media, teachers and other associated groups on different aspects of the status issue. One of the results was that secondary teachers were ranked in the 12th place and elementary teachers in the 14th place out of 16 occupations, suggesting that the status of the teaching profession is low, and that there are large differences between the teaching profession and other professions judged to have high status. One of the factors that contribute to status of a profession is the salary. Ingersoll & Perda (2008) presented

tables with mean salaries of selected occupations in the United States. Teachers are at the bottom of the tables. The salaries of teachers are low in both countries Israel and Turkey. According to the OECD (2012) the salary of an elementary school teacher with 15 teaching years is about 29,000 \$ in Israel and about 27,500 \$ in Turkey, much lower than in countries such as Australia, England, Portugal, Japan and the United States.

Students choose to become teachers even though the salary is low. Many of them choose this career because they believe they can be good teachers and make a change. Murphy et al. (2004) investigated the characteristics of 'good teachers' as seen by teachers and by students. They found that good teachers are believed to be caring, patient, not boring and polite. They also find that beliefs about good teaching seem to be formed at an early age.

Research design

297 pre-service teachers from Israel and 311 pre-service teachers from Turkey participated in this study. Among the Israeli participants 157 were in the first year of study and 140 in the fourth year, all studying at a large academic college of education. Among the pre-service teachers in Turkey 151 were in the first year and 160 in the fourth year, all studying at a large university. In both countries the teaching subjects (math, history, science, literature etc.) as well as the teaching level (pre-school, elementary, high school) of the pre-service teachers varied.

The participants were asked to respond to a questionnaire with four questions, the first three open ended:

- A. If you could change 3 things in the educational system what would you change? Why?
- B. Why did you choose to study teaching?
- C. Write 5 characteristics of a good teacher. Write them from the most important – number 1 to the least important – number 5.
- D. Compare the teaching profession to other professions in Israel/Turkey on a 1-5 scale: importance of teaching profession; status of teachers; salary; weekly working hours; satisfaction.

The answers were coded according to categories and analyzed.

Results

In this paper we present pre-service teachers' responses to questions D and B.

Questions D – Comparison of the teaching profession to other professions

In this question the participants were asked to compare teaching to other professions. They had to mark their answer on a 1-5 scale, where 1 stands for "very low", 2 stands for "lower", 3 stands for "same as" 4 stands for "higher" and 5 for "much higher". For each group of pre-service teachers we calculated the mean.

Importance of the teaching profession

The mean for the Israeli pre-service teachers was 3.4 in first year and 3.7 in the fourth year. The mean of the Turkish pre-service teachers was 4.3 in the first year and 4.5 in the fourth year. The results suggest that the Turkish students believe much more that the Israeli students do that teaching is a very important profession.

In both countries the number is higher among the fourth year students suggesting that by learning and practicing teaching the pre-service teachers understood much more the importance of the profession.

Status of teachers compared to other professions

The mean for the Israeli pre-service teachers was 2.3 in first year and 2.0 in the fourth year. The mean of the Turkish pre-service teachers was 3.6 in the first year and 3.5 in the fourth year. In both countries the status of the teaching profession is low. This can be clearly seen in the answers of the Israeli students and less seen in the answers of the Turkish students. It seems that although the status of the teaching profession in Turkey is low the pre-service teachers believe that the status of teachers in their country is above average. In both countries a decrease can be seen between first and fourth year, which is much more evident among the Israeli pre-service teachers.

Salary of teachers compared to other professions

The mean for the Israeli pre-service teachers was 1.8 in first year and 1.8 in the fourth year. The mean of the Turkish pre-service teachers was 2.0 in the first year and 2.1 in the fourth year. It seems that pre-service teachers in both countries clearly mirror in their answers the low salaries of teachers with no difference between first and fourth year. Moreover, when comparing this statement to the previous one it seems that Israeli pre-service teachers connect low salary with status while the Turkish students believe that the profession of teaching in their country is above average although the salary is very low.

Weekly working hours of teachers compared to other professions

The mean for the Israeli pre-service teachers was 3.1 in first year and 3.2 in the fourth year. The mean of the Turkish pre-service teachers was 2.9 in the first year and 2.2 in the fourth year. These responses suggest that in Israel the participants ranked the weekly working hours of teachers slightly higher than in other professions, while in Turkey the mean is lower than 3, meaning that the working hours of teachers seem to them lower than for other professions and seem much lower by the fourth year pre-service teachers. In Israel in the last years there was an increase in the hours teachers have to stay at school and this might be the reason for the responses of the Israeli participants. In Turkey, it is interesting to note the decrease from 2.9 to 2.2 among the fourth year pre-service teachers. One would expect that pre-service teachers, who probably have already an idea of the time teachers have to put in their work beyond the teaching hours at school, would give a different answer. It seems that we need to further explore the reasons for this phenomenon.

Satisfaction in the teaching profession compared to other professions

The mean for the Israeli pre-service teachers was 4.0 in first year and 3.7 in the fourth year. The mean of the Turkish pre-service teachers was 3.9 in the first year and 4.1 in the fourth year. It is clear that in both countries students believe that the teaching profession is much more satisfying (for them at least) when compared to other professions. Among the Israeli students there is a decrease when comparing the first and the fourth year pre-service teachers. In Turkey there is an increase. It might be that the teaching together with the experiences they gained in school

contributed to the decrease among the Israeli and to the increase among the Turkish pre-service teachers.

Question B – Reasons for choosing to study teaching

This question was open-ended, no suggested reasons were given and the participants had to reveal their own reasons for choosing teaching as a career. In this question most of the participants gave more than one reason for choosing to become teachers.

It seems that one of the main reasons for choosing the teaching profession is altruistic – doing for others. 64% of the first year and 67% of the fourth year pre-service teachers in Israel gave this reason as one of their reasons for choosing teaching. 42% of the first year and 49% of the fourth year pre-service teachers in Turkey gave this reason. Participants said that teaching is a mission, or an ideology. They said that they have a desire to make a change, to help others, to train the next generation and to contribute to the society.

Another set of reasons focused on the pre-service teachers themselves and what they would like. 15% of the first year and 36% of the fourth year Israeli pre-service teachers said that they like children or like to teach. This kind of reason was given by 25% of the first year and 22% of the fourth year Turkish participants. 10% of the first year and 9% of the fourth year Israeli participants said that they choose teaching because they think they will be good teachers. None of the first year in Turkey used this reason, but 20% of the fourth year pre-service teachers said that they feel they can do this job. The difference among the Turkish participants might suggest that their preparation as prospective teachers made them confident in their ability to become good teachers.

Few of the students decided to choose teaching as a career since their parents are teachers or since family or teachers encouraged them to do so. Only 3% of the first year and 2% of the fourth year participants in Israel gave this reason, while the percentages among Turkish participants were a little higher: 9% among the first year and 6% among the fourth year participants.

10% of the first year and 6% of the fourth year pre-service teachers in Turkey chose teaching because of the comfortable working hours. Only 4% of the first year and 5% of the fourth year among the Israeli participants used this as a reason. These responses are in agreement with Turkish and Israeli participants' beliefs regarding the weekly working hours of the teaching profession as compared to other professions, as mentioned above.

Another reason mentioned much more by the Turkish pre-service teachers is that of teaching as a last resource career. 13% of the first year and 12% of the fourth year pre-service teachers said that they chose teaching since it was easy to get in or since they did not enter another faculty. The percentages of the Israeli pre-service teachers were 1% among both first and the fourth year, suggesting that this is not a reason at all when they choose to become teachers. It might be that these responses are somehow biased since participants might be reluctant to reveal this reason for choosing teaching as a career.

Discussion

In this study we revealed pre-service teachers' beliefs toward the status of the teaching profession and explored their reasons for choosing teaching as a career. The comparison of the responses given by pre-service teachers from Israel and from Turkey suggests, as could be expected, communalities as well as differences. One of the communalities is the high percentage of participants in both countries who chose the teaching career because of altruistic reasons and the low percentages that chose teaching as a last resort career. They know that the salary of teachers is much lower than that of other professions, but they think that teaching is an important profession which gives a lot of satisfaction.

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TEACHING/LEARNING THEORIES – HOW THEY ARE PERCEIVED IN CONTEMPORARY EDUCATIONAL LANDSCAPE

Abstract

This paper is about teaching and learning theories; their backgrounds and contemporary understandings expressed by different experts from various countries. It also gives insight into the results of a pilot research of Latvian teachers practitioners about their perceptions, thoughts and ideas about teaching/learning.

Introduction

In our modern, high technology society, everything moves at a fast pace, so it is necessary for education to make changes to provide more useful members of society. The teacher's responsibility does not focus on the content they teach, but on directing students to develop these lifelong learning skills. It is important to let students know that the responsibility for learning is with the learners themselves. Unfortunately, very often teachers concentrate more on how they teach and less on how students learn. Instead of thinking that a teacher is the only knowledge-giver who stands up front in the class, the 21st century needs such a teaching/learning process, where there is less teachers' talk and more students' talk; more consideration on how teachers can enable their students for independent learning.

Background

Claxton (1984) says that every psychology has a philosophy behind it. Psychology of learning creates theories about how people's theories change and develop. So people have been trying to understand learning for centuries. The debates that have occurred through the ages reoccur today in a variety of viewpoints about teaching and learning and the teachers' role in this process. As Wenger (2009) states that learning has traditionally been the province of psychological theories.

Skinner (1974), who is considered to be the father of modern **behaviorism** considered learning to be the production of desired behaviors. He denied any influence of mental processes. The pedagogical focus of behaviorism is on control and adaptive response and it they completely ignores issues of meaning.

Wilson and Peterson (2006) stress that behavioral theorists made the way for the '**cognitive** revolution' which involved putting the mind back into the learning equation. Learners make sense of the world, actively creating meaning, for example, while reading texts, interacting with environment or communicating with other people. As Branford, Brown and Cocking (2000) wrote:

"It is now known that very young children are competent, active agents of their own conceptual development." (p. 79).

Its pedagogical focus is on the processing and transmission of information through communication, explanation, recombination, contrast, inference, and problem solving.

This cognitive turn in psychology is often referred to as a **constructivist** approach to learning. Piaget (1929) was the first to state that students create knowledge rather than receive knowledge from the teacher. He recognized that students construct knowledge based on their experiences. If the experience is a repeat one, it fits easily to the child's cognitive structure (it is *assimilated* into the existing cognitive structure). If the experience is different or new, the child alters his/her cognitive structure to *accommodate* the new conditions. Their pedagogical focus is task-orientated.

Social learning theories take social interactions into account placing the emphasis on interpersonal relations involving imitation and modelling, and thus focus on the study of cognitive processes by which observation can become a source of learning (Bandura, 1986, 2006).

Contemporary understandings of learning

Today teachers use different classroom practices that are based on all of the above mentioned ideas about learning. Illeris (2009, p. 1) says:

"Learning is a very complex matter, and there is no generally accepted definition of the concept. On the contrary, a great number of more-or-less special or overlapping theories of learning are constantly being developed, some of them referring back to more traditional understandings, others trying to explore new possibilities and ways of thinking."

Illeris (2009) has elaborated the concept of learning originally developed by Piaget (e.g. Piaget, 1952; Flavell, 1963). His concept of learning is basically constructive in nature as it is assumed that a learner actively builds up or constructs learning as mental structures. It is possible to distinguish between four types of learning:

1. Cumulative or mechanical learning (isolated information, something new that is not a part of anything else).
2. Assimilative or learning by addition (the new element is linked as an addition to a scheme or pattern that is already established).
3. Accommodative or transcendent learning (it implies that one breaks down (parts of) an existing scheme and transforms it so that the new situation can be linked).
4. Significant (Rogers, 1951, 1969), expansive (Engestrom, 1987), transitional (Alheit, 1994) or transformative (Mezirow, 1991) learning (it implies what could be termed personality changes, or changes in the organisation of the self).

Kegan (2009) speaks about informational learning and transformational learning. He considers that learning aimed at increasing our fund of knowledge, at increasing our repertoire of skills, at extending already established cognitive structures all deepen the resources available to an existing frame of reference.

"Such learning is literally in-form-ative because it seeks to bring valuable new contents into the existing form of our way of knowing." (p. 42).

Trans-form-ative learning puts the form itself at risk of change (and not just change but increased capacity). If one is bound by concrete thinking in the study of,

say, history, then further learning of the informative sort might involve the mastery of more historical facts, events, characters, and outcomes. But further learning of a transformative sort might also involve

"the development of a capacity for abstract thinking so that one can ask more general, thematic questions about the facts, or consider the perspectives and biases of those who wrote the historical account creating the facts" (p. 42).

So in other words informative learning is about changes in *what* people know, but transformative learning is about changes in *how* people know.

The factors that promote student learning are very various. A lot of these will be the role of the teacher, who can make a huge difference. Wilson and Peterson (2006) advise teachers to focus on *learning as a process of active engagement*; *learning as individual and social*; and *learner differences as resources to be used, not obstacles to be confronted*.

Bluma (2004) emphasizes that in various sources learning is described rather differently, but she considers the development of learning skills to be very important which demands new innovative curricula, as well as upgrading of teachers' competences with a particular focus on management skills associated with the learning process, understanding how to work with various groups of learners, and creating a suitable learning environment. Accordingly, it is necessary to develop an awareness of the nature of students' learning, the relevance of a teacher's own competences and abilities, and methods for managing the learning process in order to create opportunities for student learning. Learning is about students' performance with a certain outcome - student learning outcomes are the accumulated knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students develop during their studies.

Contemporary understandings of teaching

Teaching as well as learning by various authors is described differently and there is no one unique definition. In the majority of literature both processes are treated separately. But teaching and learning in the classroom is a simultaneous process, it is a whole, i.e. the teachers' actions create situations for student learning.

James (1994) at the Annual Conference of the British Educational Research Association in Oxford outlines five conceptions of teaching:

1. Teaching as supporting student learning.
2. Teaching as an activity aimed at changing students' conceptions or understanding of the world.
3. Teaching as facilitating understanding.
4. Teaching as transmission of knowledge and attitudes to knowledge within the framework of an academic discipline.
5. Teaching as imparting information.

Dessus, Mandin and Zampa (2008) consider that teaching is cognitive-based tutoring principles for the design of a learning environment. Experts of Eberly Center for Teaching Excellence of Carnegie Mellon University (USA) highlight that teaching is a complex, multifaceted activity, often requiring teachers to juggle multiple tasks and goals simultaneously and flexibly and to create the conditions that support student learning. Wilson and Peterson (2006) specify the following implications for teaching:

1. Teaching as intellectual work.
2. Teaching as variety work.
3. Teaching as shared work.
4. Teaching challenging content.
5. Teaching as inquiry.

Thus, it can be concluded that in the contemporary education both actors, i.e. teachers and students in the teaching/learning process are active but each in a different direction – the teacher is active in thinking and projecting activities for the students' active learning and students become agents of their own learning activities and processes.

The case study

The case study was carried out in two schools in Latvia. The teachers were asked to give their opinions about the terms 'teaching' and 'learning' in order to find out what understandings the teachers with different practical experiences have. Both were secondary schools – one school is situated in a town which is located very close to Riga, the capital of Latvia and in a way can be called as the suburb school, but another one is a rural school. There are 370 students and 45 teachers in the suburb school and 333 students and 40 teachers in the rural school. Totally 16 teachers were involved in this case study – correspondingly 10 from one school and 6 from another. All of the teachers were women with different work experience – from 1 up to 20+ years and the age from 30-59.

Part of the teachers held the point of view that teaching is:

- giving or transferring knowledge/skills to students,
- a passive process if a teacher is the key person,
- giving theoretical and practical knowledge using different methods,
- a targeted process implemented by a competent person with the aim to give knowledge.

The pedagogical focus is on the processing and transmission of information and it is more cognitive approach with the teacher who gives, transfers, helps to understand.

Some teachers believed that teaching is a process in which they should:

- enable students to learn independently,
- help students to develop critical thinking,
- help students to use various ways for understanding new material,
- do a lot of independent work.

The pedagogical focus of this approach is task-orientated which is held by constructivists.

Learning by the teachers is explained as follows:

- a process students are responsible for,
- development of new skills and knowledge which are based on previous knowledge,
- students' involvement in teaching/learning process for developing skills and knowledge working independently,
- process of inquiry where students look for theoretical and practical answers,
- students' skills to find, use, analyse, evaluate, make conclusions and build up new knowledge and skills,

- a process which continues a whole life.

There are traits of both the cognitivist and the constructivist approaches in the above mentioned teachers' responses. A teacher has a role of adviser, assistant, consultant but not as lecturer or instructor. Motivation is mentioned as a very important issue because the teachers consider if students are motivated to learn, then learning is not embarrassing. The teachers' opinions about the ratio of *teaching: learning* during lessons also differ:

- 3 teachers consider it should be 50:50,
- 2 teachers – 40:60,
- 5 teachers – 30:70,
- 1 teacher – 20:80,
- 1 teacher – 15:85,
- 1 teacher – 70:30,
- 3 teachers did not answer.

Conclusion

1. *"Learning is about changing the way in which learners understand, experience or conceptualise the world around them"* (Bluma, 2004, p. 48).
2. The aim of teaching is to make student learning possible. The management of learning depend on the teacher's skills in creating learning experiences and his/her repertoire of teaching/learning methods.
3. In the contemporary education both teachers and students in the teaching/learning process in the classroom are active participants.
4. Although it is claimed that teachers are born, not made, the argument of this article is that good teaching requires teachers to create and use, expand and reject, construct and reconstruct theories of teaching and learning.
5. The case study showed that:
 - different teaching/learning approaches are used by the teachers,
 - not all teachers link teaching and learning and see both as a whole process - teaching/learning,
 - a teacher's role is treated both as a lecturer transferring knowledge to students and as a consultant, adviser, assistant who gives the right directions and manages the teaching/learning process.

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SNEŽANA MIRKOV**LEARNING PATHS IN ACADEMIC SETTING: RESEARCH SYNTHESIS¹****Abstract**

The paper represents a synthesis of results obtained in empirical studies of variables related to learning process. A number of studies were carried out within the Students Approaches to Learning perspective. According to the 3P model of learning, the complex of learning process comprises three learning approaches – Deep, Surface and Achievement approach. University and secondary school students worldwide were tested by two instruments – the Study/Learning Process Questionnaire and the Approaches to Study Inventory. Tests indicate that these measure similar and mutually comparable constructs. A different perspective is the constructive model of learning process. Empirical verifications of the Inventory of Learning Styles have shown that obtained factors which represent four learning styles – meaning, reproduction, lack of orientation, application – are congruent with factors obtained based on instruments measuring learning approaches. Different types of regulation play an important role in the description of individual styles. Including the regulation component affects relations between learning orientations and strategies. Research among Serbian university students has confirmed three factors corresponding to learning approaches. Findings indicate that it is important how learning regulation is operationalised for defining the achievement approach. Comparison of findings obtained by the same instruments on the samples from different Balkan countries could contribute to enhancement of academic learning/instruction.

Key words: approaches to learning, 3P model of learning, learning styles, constructive model of learning process, regulation in learning

As a reaction to the dominant Information Processing perspective, which put forward a set of theoretical constructs about learning used regardless of the environment, the SAL (Students' Approaches to Learning) perspective was created with an intention to involve context to a greater extent in studying learning (Entwistle & Waterston, 1988). The development of the SAL perspective was supported by findings obtained in phenomenographic studies (Marton & Saljo, 2005) in which two learning approaches were identified: Students who used *surface approach* were oriented towards memorising facts and ideas in the texts they studied, in order to be able to reproduce them later. Students who used *deep approach* were oriented towards active search for text meaning, assessed evidence against conclusions and connected new ideas with their previous knowledge and experience. Orientation towards memorising resulted in shortcomings in perceiving

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structure and principles. The dichotomy of surface and deep approach was confirmed in a multitude of studies in the higher education context. The idea about learning approaches was the initial step in the development of the conceptual network known as the SAL theory.

During the 1980s Biggs introduced the 3P model of learning in which personal and situational factors were linked so as to yield three approaches to learning: *surface*, *deep* and *achievement* (Biggs, 1984; 1985). The model comprises: *Presage factors* (personal and situational); *Process factors* (approaches to learning that consist of motives and strategies); and *Product factors* (achievement). Achievement is determined by personal and situational factors both directly and indirectly, with motives and strategies as mediators. The newer version of the 3P model presents in more detail the way in which all the factors within the model mutually interact, forming a dynamic system (Biggs, Kember & Leung, 2001; Kember, Biggs & Leung, 2004). Based on the learning approach used by students, it is possible to draw conclusions about the quality of instruction. The ways in which students encode the context/institution are represented by their *motives*; and their “self-regulatory systems” by their *strategies*. This is the way in which individuals construe learning situations and make decisions. Students will act differently when they decide only to pass the exam and when they are interested in the contents they learn. This affects how much and in which way a student will learn. The main characteristics of three approaches are summarised (Richardson, 1994a; 1994b; Kember & Leung, 1998): *Deep approach* – intention to understand, relating ideas to previous knowledge, concepts to experience, evidence to conclusion and examining the logic of argumentation; *Surface approach* – intention to complete requirements, treating task as an external imposition, focus on discrete elements, memorising information and lack of integration and reflectiveness; *Strategic/achievement approach* – intention to obtain high grades, ensuring right conditions for learning and organising time and effort.

This model served as the basis for a number of studies and led to the development of various instruments. Most frequently used are the SPQ (*Study Process Questionnaire*) and the ASI (*Approaches to Study Inventory*). The congruent results obtained on the samples from different countries have confirmed that there is a high degree of agreement between instruments (Sadler-Smith & Tsang, 1998). Three SPQ dimensions have been additionally confirmed by the studies that used the ASI: surface, deep and achievement orientations from these two instruments correlated when they were given to the same group of respondents in the range from .44 to .61, which led to the conclusion that both measure the same constructs (Wilson, Smart & Watson, 1996; Fox, Mc Manus & Winder, 2001). The majority of instruments measuring approaches to learning contain more than two constructs or factors. The SPQ, intended for university students, and the LPQ (*Learning Process Questionnaire*), intended for secondary school students, contain six scales of motive and strategy components, which refer to three approaches. In its different versions, the ASI most often contains four or five scales with a different number of subscales and items (Kember & Leung, 1998). First three scales refer to deep, structure and strategic approach, while different versions also contain the scales: styles and pathologies in learning; apathetic, i.e. disinterested approach or lack of orientation; and academic achievement or academic self-confidence (Waugh,

2002; Sadler-Smith & Tsang, 1998; Waugh & Addison, 1998). Scales within the SPQ and ASI are ascribed a similar meaning in relation to three main factors, although there are some differences compared to the strategic dimension/achievement dimension. Two main orientations in learning are different due to presence, i.e. absence of orientation towards understanding.

Results of some empirical and review studies (Kember & Leung, 1998; Richardson, 1994a; 1994b) have shown that there is little unambiguous support for a separate achievement factor, i.e. the “strategic” factor. This dimension might be present both in deep and surface orientation, all the more since this dimension has not been discovered in qualitative studies on concrete learning tasks. Achievement approach in the SPQ and strategic orientation in the ASI contain different subscales. The SPQ has subscales for achievement motive and strategy, while ASI has three subscales contributing to strategic orientation: strategic approach, extrinsic motivation and achievement motivation. However, there is still a strong correspondence between the instruments pertaining to achievement motivation – in both the SPQ and ASI this is seen as motivation through competition and ego-enhancement. The strategic approach of the ASI seems to be based upon the description of respondents who seek out hints and try to impress teachers, while the SPQ achievement subscale reflects study skills (Kember & Leung, 1998). The SPQ verification through factor analysis (Fox, McManus & Winder, 2001) has confirmed the existence of six first-order factors obtained in the longitudinal study. It has been shown that the scale of achievement motive is an indicator of the surface factor, while the surface strategy scale is a negative predictor of the deep factor. Still, achievement orientation can serve as an equally good or better achievement predictor than the deep. It is argued that achievement approach is not related to a specific learning strategy, but the choice of strategy depends on the nature of the subject and teacher demands (Wong & Lin, 1996): If a teacher demands understanding, achievement-oriented students will adapt and learn in such a way, but if the teacher asks questions that only demand memorising, achievement-oriented students will see that rote learning is utterly adequate for receiving high grades. This explains why achievement approach is connected with surface approach in some environments, and with deep approach in others.

The revised ASI version has five scales (Sadler-Smith & Tsang, 1998): *Deep approach*; *Surface approach*; *Strategic approach*; *Lack of direction*; and *Academic self-confidence*. A review of literature on testing the ASI factor structure across samples worldwide indicates that consistent data were obtained for two main orientations, although there were findings that indicate the existence of two additional factors (Richardson, 1994a; 1994b). At the same time, verifications of the SPQ factor structure provided more variable data. There were no unambiguous data to support the existence of achievement approach and that quantitative and qualitative research procedures provided data about the variety of national systems of higher education with large differences between two basic learning approaches – orientation towards understanding subject matter and orientation towards reproducing subject matter at exams. Since the role of achievement scales is not so clear as the role of deep and surface scales in using the LPQ for monitoring teaching environment, the multidimensionality of the approach was studied by the revised LPQ, in order to obtain an instrument for evaluation of learning approaches of

secondary school students suitable for use by teachers (Kember, Biggs & Leung, 2004). A two-factor version of the questionnaire with satisfactory reliability was obtained. The best results were shown for hierarchical model with motive and strategy subscales for every approach, each of which contains two subcomponents. Every motive and every strategy is multidimensional. The two-factor version proved to be the most economical, due to its fast and simple use in teaching practice and pointing to the most important parameters of quality of instruction and learning. Deep motive and deep strategy are highly positively correlated, as well as surface motive and surface strategy. The final model is a complete hierarchical model: two latent higher-order factors are *deep and surface approach*, assumed latent second-order constructs consist of components of motives and strategies of these two approaches, and each of these four factors has two subcomponents or indicators: *Deep motive* – Intrinsic interest and Work dedication; *Deep strategy* – Relating ideas and Understanding; *Surface motive* – Fear of failure and Orientation towards qualification; *Surface strategy* – Work minimum and Memorising. Other studies conducted on the samples from different countries have yielded similar findings (Wong & Lin, 1996; Kember & Leung, 1998). Obtained structure still contains previously established elements of motives and strategies, but they are not one-dimensional scales. This served to show more explicitly the multidimensionality within motive and strategy components. Studies have shown that subscales of achievement motives and strategies are placed on both factors (Biggs, Kember & Leung, 2001). Some authors (Richardson, 1994a; 1994b) think that the SPQ factor structure is better reflected by two second-order factors: *meaning* (deep – achievement) and *reproduction* (surface – achievement).

The study focused on understanding the regulation of the process of constructive learning has been an attempt to overcome the gap between conceptualisations of different learning components identified in research (Vermunt, 1998). The ILS (*Inventory of Learning Styles*) instrument was used, which covers four learning components: *Cognitive processing activities* (relating, structuring, memorising and concrete processing); *Metacognitive regulation activities* (planning, monitoring and detecting causes of difficulties); *Learning orientations* (personal goals, motives and attitudes); and *Mental models of learning* (conceptions of learning, of oneself as a student and of tasks). The way in which students process subject matter is largely directly determined by the strategies they employ, and mental models of learning and learning orientations have an indirect influence on processing strategies via regulation strategies. The way in which learning process is regulated is largely determined by mental models of learning and learning orientations. Factor analysis was applied, yielding four learning dimensions/styles: *Meaning-oriented learning style* (relating, structuring, critical and concrete processing, self-regulation, construction of knowledge and personal interest); *Reproduction-oriented learning style* (memorising and rehearsing, external regulation, intake of knowledge, certificate and self-test orientation); *Lack of orientation style* (lack of regulation, an ambivalent orientation, orientation on cooperation and educational stimulation); *Application-orientated style* (concrete processing, use of knowledge, vocational and certificate-directed orientation).

It is pointed to similarities of certain styles obtained in this research with learning approaches: meaning- and reproduction-oriented styles correspond to

meaning and reproduction orientation in the ASI, as well as to the deep and surface approach in the SPQ; lack of orientation style is similar to the apathetic approach in the ASI; and application-oriented style contains elements of elaborative processing (Vermunt, 1998). The findings that lack of orientation and application-oriented learning styles are separate from meaning- and reproduction-oriented styles indicate that the study behaviour of students comprises more than covered by deep and surface approach. Learning components are much more differentiated than can be denoted with bipolar dimensions like deep versus surface approach. According to Vermunt, such bipolar descriptions insufficiently cover the empirical variation in learning components, and conceal the complexity of behaviour in a real study context. Tests of validity of this model indicate that it is applicable in different educational systems, but that environment still influences the precise characteristics of each style (Busato et al., 1998; Veenman, Prins & Verheij, 2003; Wierstra et al., 2003). Factor analysis has confirmed a four-factor model, including the lack of orientation style although it showed less integration across components than other styles (Boyle, Duffy & Dunleavy, 2003). Application-oriented style was largely specified by learning orientations and conceptions. Contrary to previous findings, there were no strong correlations between orientations and strategies. Including the regulation component in the ILS reduces or changes the influence of orientation, compared to instruments measuring approaches to learning. Links between motivation and use of strategies could be more variable than suggested by previous studies. The links between components are more flexible, which confirms the claim that consistency and variability should be considered when looking at learning styles (Vermetten, Vermunt & Lodewijks, 1999). Regulation plays a mediating role in learning. Different types of regulation play an important role in characterising individual learning styles. The study conducted on the sample of Serbian university students (Opačić & Mirkov, 2010) dealt with orientations towards learning goals and strategies, using items from different instruments, and confirmed that they were grouped into three factors in the way that corresponds to three learning approaches. Indicators of regulation contribute to defining the achievement approach. In future studies, comparison of findings obtained on the samples of different countries in the Balkan region could contribute both to further development of instruments and to enhancement of the learning process in an academic setting.

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STANKA SETNIKAR CANKAR & FRANC CANKAR**INNOVATION CAN BE LEARNED****Abstract**

A two-year project was organised to promote creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship for young people in eight Slovenian regions. The project's aim was to train teacher-mentors, who then trained pupils and worked with them and local community representatives to carry out projects. The paper presents the findings of a project that monitored the work of enterprise circles and analysed their strengths and weaknesses. Differences were also found between the positions taken by the group of teachers that participated in the project and a randomly selected control group of teachers. The findings indicate that teachers who led enterprise circles were critical of an over-emphasis on administrative work connected to the preparation of typical business plans. They were frustrated by overly detailed and prescriptive syllabuses, are more likely to accept pupils' ideas, and make more frequent use of ICT in their teaching. They are less likely to attribute open thinking and innovation to their schools and also believed that their schools were less tolerant of mistakes and put more emphasis on discipline.

Key words: school, enterprise circle, innovation, teachers

Introduction

The global economic crisis has demonstrated that Slovenia lags behind more organised and globally competitive states as measured by a number of important indicators (EIS, 2006; Glavič, 2011). This has exposed a lack of appropriate strategies and policies that could improve the situation, at the same time it has focused attention on the education system for young people, which must become more open and relate more closely to life, as well as promoting creativity and innovation. The need for more ambitious and broader-based innovation policies and entrepreneurial thought and action among young people is today emphasised more than ever before, because creativity and innovation are and will remain drivers of social development. Florida (2002) even writes of societies moving from the information age to a "creative society", while Salkowitz (2010) states that there are three main factors that will influence the transformation of society in the 21st century: young people, ICT (information and communications technology) and entrepreneurship. Educating and motivating young people to take initiative at all levels of the educational process is therefore a vital part of lifelong learning, and is becoming an important part of general human knowledge.

Developing creativity and innovation demands the formation of a suitable environment that promotes the flow of new ideas, curiosity and innovation. This occurs in integrated forms of learning that facilitate problem-solving in realistic, authentic situations. If we want to promote the development of innovation, then work in school cannot be separated from the local community and the production process. Of course, encouraging pupils to generate new ideas is only an initial step. Good ideas must also be developed, made tangible, and put into action, and perhaps

one day also marketed (Likar, 2004). This entails pupils attempting to pass creative ideas along the entire invention and innovation chain to the point where useful results are produced that could also be of interest to others. This develops the entrepreneurial competence, which is not an absolute ability that is independent of the work and life context, but is demonstrated by an individual managing or overcoming new or different conditions. Companies and organisations are also aware of this, since they understand that in order to be innovative in the environment in which they operate, they need the support of a local community that provides sufficient initiative and entrepreneurial challenges for young people to be able to form their ideas into projects that relate to various fields of life in that local community.

A project took place in 2010 and 2011 in eight Slovenian regions; the aim of the two-year project was to train teacher-mentors, who would subsequently train pupils and run projects together with them and local-community representatives in “enterprise circles”. The overall work plan was based on a classic concept of innovation and enterprise development. The project groups produced a considerable amount of interesting products and services after one year’s work.

Methods

The authors followed the work of the enterprise circles and investigated how teachers perceived the narrower school and broader local environment in terms of promoting creativity and innovation. The aims were as follows:

- to monitor the work of the enterprise circles and analyse their strengths and weaknesses;
- to determine whether differences exist between the positions taken by the group of teachers that participated in the project and a randomly selected control group of teachers.

The first aim involved diaries kept by enterprise circle mentors. The entries were reviewed and analysed, and the definitions and characteristics that most comprehensively and succinctly described the course of the enterprise circles’ work were linked together. The second aim was met by interviewing 100 teachers (mentors) who had led an enterprise circle for a year, and a control group of 142 randomly selected teachers (other teachers). Both were questioned using a printed questionnaire which measured positions on creativity and innovation, the use and the role of ICT, study and the role of pupils, education and professional training, curricula and syllabuses, and the school and support environment. The statistic significance of differences was tested with an appropriate t-test.

Results and Discussion

The diary entries by teacher-mentors on the progress of enterprise circles have been selected since they best define the research problem relating to the first aim.

“The work with pupils in the enterprise circle is good. It revitalises the routine work of normal lessons. This goes for me as a teacher, as well as the pupils. Certain phases are a little too rigid and administrative. For example, when we prepared the business plan, the pupils were not particularly motivated, and had not yet really connected all the different phases into a whole. That only happened, when they developed an idea and presented it at a presentation event.”

“We found with the integration of the local community, that it was much easier to present activities to pupils in the workplace, so it would be better for all the work to take place in their space, rather than for them to come to school to present their work.”

“We faced the greatest problems in the potential innovation production phase. We produced the product prototype externally, but that took considerable time and we had to pay for material and labour, so it led to quite a lot of costs.”

The diary entries indicate that the teachers perceive the work of the enterprise circles as sound and rational. They consider that there is too much emphasis on the administrative work connected to preparing the business plan and market analysis. The enterprise circles are a welcome development stage on the path towards a comprehensive understanding of the promotion of innovation and entrepreneurship in the school environment. The use of business plans in enterprise education does not give satisfactory results (Honig & Karlsson, 2004; Garavan & O’Cinneide, 1994), perhaps also because of the sense of rigidity and bureaucracy, which was confirmed by mentors in their diaries. The authors therefore focused on promoting creative problem-solving (Martin, 2010; Meinel & Leifer, 2011; Kelley, 2005), which is otherwise a universally applicable skill that also represents the essence of entrepreneurial thought and action. A designer-oriented method of thinking as a pedagogical approach does not demand a revolution in the education system and is therefore a welcome addition to the existing system that includes the enterprise circles and other organisational forms of promoting enterprise at all levels of education.

The results relating to the second aim, setting out differences in positions expressed by the group of teacher-mentors that participated in the project, and the randomly selected group of teachers. Significant differences between the groups were found for statements agreeing that syllabuses were overly detailed for quality work with pupils, and that they had too much prescribed and not enough optional content. Teacher-mentors proved more critical on this issue. At the same time teacher-mentors were more likely to accept pupils’ ideas; in fact this statement produced the largest difference between the two groups. Compared to the group of randomly selected teachers, the mentor group expected more from their pupils, and also used ICT more frequently in their lessons, as well as being more likely to include them in project work.

On the other hand, teacher-mentors are more critical when discussing the level of promotion within the narrower school environment. They are less likely to attribute open thinking and innovation to their schools and also believed that their schools were less tolerant of mistakes, although the statistical significance for this last statement is only borderline significant. Teacher-mentors mention discipline as a characteristic of schools more than other teachers. They also consider that research projects and tenders to participate in projects are an important factor in the promotion of innovation. This is another statistically significant difference between the groups. Teacher-mentors attribute greater influence in the promotion of innovation specifically to the family, i.e. the domestic environment, while they also consider personality traits to be important. The difference for this statement is only borderline significant.

Teacher-mentors who have led enterprise circles are also statistically significantly different from their colleagues by being more critical about syllabuses, which they consider to be overly detailed for quality work with pupils. They say that they contain too much prescribed content and not enough optional content, which makes it harder to focus lessons on themes that are not directly linked to the syllabus.

Another major area in which the positions of teacher-mentors are significantly different to those of their colleagues is their attitude to cooperation with pupils in lessons. It is clear that mentors are more open and more likely to accept pupils' ideas, while also expecting more of them. They also use ICT more frequently in lessons, and are more likely to include pupils in project work. Teacher-mentors are less likely to attribute open thinking and innovation to their schools and also believe that their schools were less tolerant of mistakes, while they are more likely than their colleagues to mention discipline as a characteristic of their school. They attribute greater influence in the promotion of innovation to the family in particular, i.e. the domestic environment, while they also consider personality traits to be important. There is also a statistically significant difference between the mentor and other-teacher groups in their view that research projects and tenders to collaborate in projects are an important factor in the promotion of innovation among pupils.

The positions expressed by the teacher-mentors are encouraging since they indicate that a school that shapes pupils into standardised models of thought, ways of thinking and resolving problems actually functions as a block to pupil creativity. That has been a mistake that many of us have made. Pupils learn that when they do and think about things in the "right" way, they will be rewarded with good marks, while they are punished for acting and thinking in the "wrong" way (Robinson, 2010). On the other hand, this form of encouragement means the focus of young people's motivation in their school work is outwards from within, while external motivation starts to replace internal motivation if there is an emphasis on school marks. Therefore when pupils learn that there are "right" and "wrong" ways of thinking and solving problems, it consolidates the concept that different ways of thinking and other solutions are wrong.

Teacher-mentors are also significantly different from the randomly selected group of teachers in one more, exceptionally important area – tolerating mistakes in pupils' work. When pupils learn it is not worth risking making a mistake, they simply stop trying, and give up on being curious, creative, original and innovative. According to Robinson (2010), people do not learn to be creative, but in contrast they can become less creative. School can make us "unlearn" creativity. Not school per se, but the schools we have, the schools of the early industrial age, which in recent years have slightly updated their approaches but which have not updated their basic philosophy, which still understands school as a factory for producing young people that are equipped with sufficient knowledge.

Creativity and innovation are typical of cultures that allow risk rather than risk avoidance. Studies (Ferrari et al., 2009) indicate that the competences of risk-taking and research – the basis of creativity and innovation – are the opposite of typical school values such as obedience and discipline. A tolerant environment or culture is exceptionally important, an environment that permits recognition of what is original and what is mere conformity. A creative culture offers many opportunities for

individuals to engage, to build knowledge and to negotiate. It is dominated by open communication at all levels, creating trust, promoting difference, and understanding relations between people and culture at its centre. How open the school management is to all kinds of innovation is also very important. If the management is open, many kinds of changes can take place, but if not one cannot expect major changes to take place.

Conclusions

The findings suggest that participation of schools and the local community in the promotion of creativity and innovation is influenced by a web of social circumstances linked to the experiences, perceptions and interpretations of the partners involved. Although enterprise circles are a welcome form of promoting innovation and entrepreneurship within schools, in terms of seeking sustainable solutions, theory and practice are already moving beyond them. At the heart of new developments are approaches that emphasise creative problem-solving among young people, which is a universally applicable skill, as well as being the essence of entrepreneurial thought and action. Despite some limitations, the findings indicate that experienced and innovative teachers constitute an important element of innovative work. The study shows that there is an important opportunity here to organise and introduce more planned, focused and systematic professional training for teachers.

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GERTRUDE SHOTTE**RETHINKING PEDAGOGY: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACHES**

The principal goal of education is to create people who are capable of doing new things, not simply repeating what other generations have done - people who are creative, inventive discoverers. (Piaget)

Education in the light of present-day knowledge and need calls for some spirited and creative innovations both in the substance and the purpose of current pedagogy. (Anne Sullivan Macy quotes)

Introduction

Education, pedagogy and change are watchwords of twenty-first century educators and researchers. They are interrelated on theoretical, as well as practical levels. The renewed attention given to pedagogical changes in the education sphere is propelled by globalisation and its knowledge economy forces. As the need to engage with these ‘forces’ arises, so does the need for communication in a ‘global language’. This gives rise to this question: which language is a global language? As indicated by the work of ‘scholars’ who have an interest in linguistics, that global language is English (Raine, 2012; Rosen, 2010; Crystal, 2010). This paper looks at English Language teaching approaches for learners whose Mother Tongue is not English.

Rosen (2010) advances the outlook that English is “a language that has grown to world domination”. Admittedly, not everyone has a total positive outlook on English language ‘domination’ since this can bring about the abandonment of native tongues (Rymer, 2012, p. 60). However, one cannot ignore the importance of English language as a vital communication tool for the knowledge economy – knowledge and skills specialism by means of technology (Chen & Dahlman, 2005; Robertson, 2005). It seems therefore that education systems’ interest in the teaching of English language is not misplaced if they are to engage in ‘an international communication’ that has the potential to improve their educational status as well as enhance nation-building activities. Strategy consultant, Dorie Clarke, in commenting on whether English is a preferred language for global business notes:

English will maintain and grow its dominance, moving from “a marker of the elite” in years past to “a basic skill needed for the entire workforce, in the same way that literacy has been transformed in the last two centuries from an elite privilege into a basic requirement for informed citizenship.” (Clarke, 2012).

Clearly, “the global spread of the English Language” (Raine, 2012), has not escaped the attention of educators around the world. Little wonder that in this era of educational change and pedagogic reform, education ministries see the teaching of English language as a priority curriculum matter. This paper reports on English Language teaching approaches that are now being used by Gambian English Language teachers. It contends that English should be taught using content, activities and resources that are specifically tailored for learners whose Mother

Tongue is not English. And as such, assert that basic grammatical structures and related principles should be at the heart of teacher training, which is crucial in equipping teachers with the professional skills they need to attain and maintain high English literacy levels in the national community, and beyond. To this end, the paper promotes a cross-concept poetic/musical approach. It argues that this approach is practical and advantageous in situations where English is a second language, or considered as a foreign language; and makes the case that English Language teaching should be a pleasurable experience for teachers and learners alike. It draws on personal experiences, and experiences of some English Language teachers in The Gambia. The background information that is presented in the next subheading provides the context for this paper. It gives insight into my interest in the educational experiences of Gambian teachers, pupils and students.

Framing the Case

The Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education (MOBSE) in The Gambia is currently on a campaign to improve the quality of education in its schools (MoBSE, 2012). This is done in collaboration with the University of The Gambia (UTG). To this end, the enhancement programme purposes to raise the content knowledge level of all English and Mathematics teachers in Lower Basic Education (LBE) (Grades – 6, referred to as Primary Education in some education systems). The upgrading of teachers' content knowledge is being done via a programme of in-service training. The selection of teachers for this 'special' training was based on the results of a 'Content Knowledge Test' taken by teachers who are qualified, but who do not hold West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) credits in English and Mathematics. The total number of teachers undertaking this training is 2 700, which represents 75% of qualified LBS teachers in The Gambia.

The 'Content Knowledge Test' was administered in 2010 but the training sessions were carried out in August 2011, December 2011, April 2012 and December 2012, in Centres in the six regions in The Gambia. As noted earlier, MoBSE's main target is to improve teachers' content knowledge; but there is also a strong focus on pedagogy. This target is my connection to the training programme, in particularly the December 2012 session. As the English consultant for this round of the training, I was expected to collaborate with an 'English Language Teachers' Team' to develop the pedagogical aspects of the training programme. One of my tasks was to provide training for the tutors who deliver the training sessions. Another was to design and develop course materials for teachers to use.

It is within the boundaries of these roles that I had the opportunity to 'rethink and redesign pedagogy', in relation to the teaching of the English Language for learners whose Mother Tongue is not English. This paper does not allow space for a full account of all the teaching learning activities that took place at the training sessions. It will therefore highlight the main aspects of the 'new' pedagogic practices used in the December 2012 training. It will also give a brief explanation of the rationale for the approach taken, and by extension, the reason behind the selection of particular methods and strategies.

Old Content, New Pedagogic Approaches

A sizeable proportion of the material presented under this subheading formed part of the discussion presented in the Teachers' Guides produced as resource material for the training sessions. It justifies the position taken on content chosen for the training programme.

The 'old content' that was the focus of the training exercise is the 'Parts of Speech'. This content theme was deliberately chosen because the 'Parts of Speech' are the basis for meaningful communication. They are words we read, speak, hear and even think! They occupy a particular position in any given sentence. This suggests that it is not just the word itself that matters; how it is used in the sentence, its position in the sentence and its meaning also need some consideration if one is to know what part of speech a specified word is. Knowing the parts of speech, as well as their various meanings and functions, are important in understanding how sentences are constructed, how what is written, spoken or heard should be interpreted, which in turn should help to improve writing skills. Such level of importance necessitates that teachers should know, and teach the parts of speech well, if learners are to benefit fully. More importantly, in the Gambian context, English is the official language but other main languages such as Mandinka, Fulfulde, Wolof, Soninke and Jola are widely spoken. It is not unusual for speakers to switch between languages. In fact, in some communities English is hardly spoken. Undoubtedly, such a situation will affect the way the English language is taught and learned; and given that English is the official language of the Gambia, its grammatical structure should be taught in a way that shows a 'respectable' degree of excellence.

The 'language' situation explained above necessitates a renewed emphasis on, and a fresh approach to the teaching of the Parts of Speech. It was in this light that eight *Guides* (one for each Part of Speech) were produced to be used as the core material for the training of the teachers. *The Guides* employ a back-to-basics style with a poetic/musical base. The reason for this method is to allow teachers to gain mastery of the foundation principles of the grammatical structure of the English Language. I assert that this technique does not only provide a solid basis for teachers to tackle the higher tiers, but it also boosts their confidence to perfect the 'complex' aspects of language.

About The Guides

The Teachers' Guides are user-friendly handbooks designed for English Language teachers in The Gambia. They cater for all grade levels but focus is on mastering the basics. There are eight in total – *The Notorious Noun*, *The Versatile Verb*, *The Adaptable Adjective*, *The Amazing Adverb*, *The Practical Pronoun*, *The Positional Preposition*, *The Clever Conjunction* and *The Intervening Interjection*. Each Guide is presented in two parts – *Part I: About the Guide* and *Part II: Content and Suggested Activities*. The content of the Guides is underpinned by a constructivist philosophy. The Guides' principle aims are to:

- Equip teachers with all the basic information they need to become efficient and successful English Language teachers.

- Supplement teachers' knowledge of the English Language content material.
- Enhance and improve teachers' pedagogical practices, which in turn should enrich the students' literacy.
- Build up teacher quality, which should eventually improve learner quality, and ultimately the general quality of education.

Each *Guide* supports two other main features (1) a '*Part-of-Speech-ogram*' that presents a breakdown of the parts in the radial diagram; and (2) a song bearing the same name as the *Guide*, which encapsulates the essence of the Part of Speech that it tells about. The *Guides* advocate and demonstrate that learning can be a 'fun thing' that brings essential, significant and lasting results. Teachers are therefore encouraged to plan lessons to include activities with pupil involvement as the focus. All lesson plans should demonstrate a *Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP)* format, where the beginning, middle and end sections of the plan reflect PPP. The PPP approach should emphasise less 'teacher talk' and more 'pupil participation'. Positive results from well-planned PPP lessons will bring a sense of satisfaction and achievement to the pupils as much as they do to the teachers. The PPP style is an appropriate catalyst for English Language learning via poetry and music.

Why a Poetic, Musical Style?

The 'poetry-music approach' opens up many opportunities for teachers to present lessons in a variety of interesting and exciting ways. Poetry and music are inextricably linked. A famous quote by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow states: "music is the universal language of mankind". Another well-known quote by William Hazlitt notes: "poetry is the universal language which the heart holds with nature and itself". Given that poetry and music are universal, this *Guide* advocates the use of these 'universal tools' in the teaching of English Language, which itself is universal in scope. Both poetry and music are easy to 'digest' because of their rhythmic nature. They also have the power to evoke deep-seated feelings, which suggests that these tools can be used not only to help children to learn, but also to help them 'bring back to mind' what they have been taught. The all-embracing nature of poetry and music puts them in a strong position to be the 'perfect' catalysts for teaching and learning.

Thinking – the Fifth Essential Skill

It is generally accepted among English Language teachers that the four essential skills necessary for mastering a language are *speaking, listening, reading and writing* (English Club, 2012). Undoubtedly, these skills are essentials for the attainment and maintenance of high literacy skills. But none of these seems fully functional without *thinking* – the fifth skill that I have added to the language skills list. I view *thinking* as having as much value as the other four skills. Thinking is ever present throughout the learning process. I contend that whichever mode (receptive or productive) is engaged, neither of the two is complete, or is fully operational without a degree of thinking.

An activity-oriented approach for English Language teaching is recommended in the *Guides*. Learner engagement and involvement is highly recommended for it is this level of participation that encourages, and sustains thinking ability. I contend

that meaningful and structured activities are the training grounds for the development of perceptive powers and capabilities that foster creativity and an analytical mind. This is yet another way in which *thinking* has earned its rightful place as the fifth language development skill.

For every lesson, teachers should have structured activities that will allow the five language skills to work in harmony so that learning the fundamental principles of the English language is seen as a necessary good, rather than a difficult chore. This helps to create an 'our', rather than an 'us-and-them' atmosphere, where the teacher is seen to be '*the guide on the side*' rather than '*the sage on the stage*'. Teaching and learning go hand in hand, so teachers and pupils alike should participate fully in a given lesson. Pupil participation not only aids understanding and memorisation, but also gives pupils a sense of importance as a 'facilitator in the teaching learning process, a position that can only encourage more *thinking*. As noted earlier the content in the Guide is underpinned by a constructivist philosophy. The next subheading explains.

The Theories behind the Practice

Constructivism, and by extension, social constructivism, is the main theoretical position employed in the *Guide*. Constructivist theorists contend that children are active participants in their learning in that they actively construct new knowledge whenever they interact with their environments (Bakhurst & Shanker, 2001; Smith 2002). In other words, new knowledge is processed mentally, when the 'old' meets the 'new', and then the action follows. Social constructivist, Lev Vygotsky contends that learning cannot be, and should not be *separated from social context* (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 128). He further stresses that social interaction aids cognitive development. Drew (2012) sees school as school as the perfect place to begin cultivating student's social interaction.

The main theoretical perspectives used are from Piaget, Bruner and Vygotsky:

- *Readiness* (Piaget)
- *A spiral organisation* of content and activities (Bruner)
- *Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)* (Vygotsky)
- *Scaffolding* (Vygotsky)
- *Cognitive development happens in a social space* where people influence each other (Bruner, Piaget, Vygotsky)

(CUREE, 2012; Schunk, Pintrich & Meece, 2008; Vygotsky, 1978).

Maslow's motivation theory – Hierarchy of Needs, Gardner's multiple intelligences and learning styles, Ausabel advance organisers and Bloom's Taxonomy of learning Objectives also influenced the content used for teacher training. Within the discussion of the appropriate use of this broad range of educational theories, care was taken to emphasise the 'pedagogic shift' that has evolved over time. The shift is played out on this theoretical continuum: from instructivism to constructivism to social constructivism. In practice, this is demonstrated as: a teacher-centred approach, to a teacher-learner interaction, to learner-learner-teacher interaction with the teacher as a guide or facilitator.

Conclusion

The paper makes a case for using a poetic musical approach to boost teaching learning activities in the teaching of English Language to learners whose Mother Tongue is not English. It contends that during this era educational change a rethinking, as well as a redesigning of pedagogic activities is necessary. It utilises the case of The Gambia MoBSE that is currently organising training programmes to enhance its English Language teachers' content knowledge and pedagogic skills.

A Teachers' Guide was developed for the purpose of the training programmes. The paper presents the rationale behind the suggested content and activities and highlights the main theoretical position that underpinned the strategies and methods used. It concludes by illustrating the reason for the pedagogic shift. The 'new' programme is a practical one; but only time will tell whether The Gambian teachers, pupils, students and adult learners will eventually see English as a 'window' to a multi-dimensional academic realm and a related knowledge economy, and not just 'an official language'.

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REPERCUSSIONS OF TEACHING TRAINING IN THE SOCIOLOGY OF WORK IN MEXICO

Abstract

The labour markets in Mexico are characterised by uncertainty in terms of the lack of work contracts social protection, unemployment, high level of self-employed workers independently and micro-businesses, low income levels, the involuntary part-time working and low levels of unionisation. The all indicate that the labour situation currently reflects many deficiencies in the urban labour markets of Mexico.

Over the two last decades, modest periods of growth and crises have taken place within a strategy of neoliberal development that promotes increased exports and foreign economic investment. Rates of unemployment have stayed low, with the exception of the devaluation crisis of 1995, but our labour markets continue to display very marked weaknesses with regard to occupations and jobs with reasonable income and other suitable conditions of work.

Introduction

The various urban settings, and their importance in demographic, economic and political terms, are reflected in the new aspects of urban labour markets which deserve greater attention nowadays, especially the uncertainty produced by the absence of secure labour contracts and schemes of social protection. There is also unemployment, the extensive use of sub-contractors and micro-businesses, the grey economy, low levels of income, involuntary part-time working and low levels of unionisation. In addition, we must not lose sight of the strategies that promote foreign investment in various forms, industrial assembly plants and the expansion of tourism, as well as the fact that these processes are not well regulated.

Background

Sociology in Mexico came of age in the twentieth century, following theoretical and methodological traditions of national origin, and becoming established in Mexico at the same time as it led Latin America. The process was not simple because there were problems to face at each turn to articulate the scientific way of thinking, from philosophical contributions and paradigms, to the lack of academic discussion and the development of social science in Mexico (Orozco, 2010).

The origins of sociology in Mexico to be found in the positivism of thinkers such as Justo Sierra, José Vasconcelos, Antonio Caso, Manuel Gamio and Andrés Molina Enríquez. However, as the country industrialised and the mass media developed, thinkers like in agreement it advanced the industrialization of the country and the development of mass media arose other thinkers like Samuel Ramos, Manuel Parra and José Iturriaga came to prominence. Although each contributes to

the social range, sociologists Pablo González Casanova and Rodolfo Stavenhagen were particularly important in consolidating the Latin American current.

The history of Mexican sociology is tied to the concept “modernity”. In the interpretation of the history of the country, modernity is one of the elements used to give to sense to the historical events and processes, such as independence, the revolution, the presidencies of Porfirio Díaz and Cardenas, industrialization or the tensions between the State, University, Church, social classes and the society as a whole (Andrade, 2008).

The process of institutionalisation of this social science began in 1875, when Justo Sierra included it in the study programme of Escuela Nacional Preparatoria (ENP) 5. During this period, sociology inclined toward positivism, but the facts were always discussed from a scientific perspective, although socio-economic differences and caste hierarchies, even different levels of competition with castes, were always present.

In the post revolution period, sociology renewed its theoretical and methodological apparatus, because the object of study was not the same; racial mixing is seen as a socio-political benefit for the nation (Vasconcelos, 2000). Problems of modernity and national integration, whether economic, political or social, came to be linked with indigenous cultures, delinquency, alcoholism, poverty, education, ethics, corruption and unemployment.

Because of this questions arise such as: What pressures could bring about changes in ingrained trends? How were trends changed? What were the interests of the groups in power? And who benefited from the changes?

The definition that occurs in the sociology of work is:

The study of very diverse human groups, according to their size and functions, that are constituted for work, of the reactions they exert on their surroundings on various levels, how the activities of work are constantly remodelled by technical progress, by external relationships among groups, and internal relationships between the individuals that compose them. (Friedmann, 2007).

The definition of the problem

The Mexican labour market has been characterized by several features that arise because of their evolution and labour conditions.

In the 1990s, there was fluctuating demand for manpower, due to a large extent to an expansion of assembly plants of companies whose main sources of capital were foreign, a situation that has gone into reverse in the last decade. The most recent period has seen reduced demand for our exports, and many of these companies left the country to find cheaper labour, which, together with the lack of legal and fiscal security, encouraged this “mobile capital” to move on. The downturn in external investment led to mass dismissals of personnel, who could not find similar work. These people were absorbed by commerce and the services, which stimulated self-employment and the growth of micro businesses in less than favourable circumstances.

The reorientation of the strategy for economic development, characterised by reduced disposable incomes and greater inequality of incomes, has resulted in more than half the labour force being without access to employment in the early years of the twenty first century.

After the transitory rise in direct foreign investment, the signing of the Free Trade Agreement and the devaluation that took place in the middle of the decade, the growth in manufacturing reduced unemployment substantially.

The difficult economic, political and social conditions of the first decade of the century caused the flow of foreign investment to fall significantly, in addition to which Mexican exports fell, in the face of competition from the Chinese for the market of the United States. In these circumstances a drop in levels of economic activity was particularly marked, especially among women, and there was a reduction in the industrial workforce in certain urban areas (García, 2009).

The city of Mexico continued to lose its character of industrial motor of the nation. The capital city continued to focus on the activities of commerce and services, and the expansion of micro businesses. The changes in other local urban labour markets were linked to a strategy of increasing exports and the substitution of imports.

Over and above the specialization in economic activities, the prevailing conditions of work in a good number of Mexican cities have been characterised by the changes balance between employment of men and women, high unemployment, part-time working, low levels of income, the increasing appearance of micro-industries, employees working without benefits and without remuneration.

The informality of work reflected micro businesses and independent working, or rather an increasing lack of labour regulation in the absence of social benefits.

For these reasons it is interesting to examine the quality of work, or rather the prevailing insecurity in work, as indicated by income, irregular days of work, absence of social protection and contracts of work, for the most part (De la Garza, 2006).

Challenges facing Mexico

Unemployment

Mexico experienced 80 years of growth in the labour market, under the influence of the population increase, between 1900 and 1980, the latter being the date when stagnation in the creation jobs. This became more marked in the 1990s, when unemployment became quite common, and in the second half of 1992 unemployment in Mexico rose sharply (Cruz, 2002).

Unemployment is the result of irregularities in the applied economic policy, when the economy fails to produce more jobs, higher pay, and improved wages and benefits, guaranteeing improved living conditions for workers and their families.

This produces a vicious cycle in which the lack of public and social policies directed to the improvement of conditions of life of Mexican families makes it impossible for workers to be better educated, so that future generations benefit from better jobs and better pay.

The job shortage produces migration, under employment (the black economy and peripatetic workers), and crime, among other effects. Unemployment nowadays is most evident in two sectors: a) young people, and b) women.

Migration

Migration starts with the need to find work, and occurs in two ways. First there is migration to the urban zones, since even when the countryside provides work, it is not well paid, so people from the country migrate to the city in search of better conditions of life in the city.

Emigration in Mexico occurs among the labourers, and continues to the present day, as one way to find work and secure an income for the family.

Perhaps one of the main reasons for migration is the industrialization of companies, since the price paid for manual work goes down, as machines replace workers. That is to say technology advances and people become ever less necessary to the running of industry, and those people who are needed are well qualified and well educated. This reduces the opportunity for employing more people in this sector.

Migration can represent one option to improve the quality of life, income and qualifications. At the present time 15% of the migrant population is young people. The total migrant population is currently 9.1 million. There are 152 million young people in the world with an income below \$1.25 a day, in spite of having a job (Levy, 2010).

In addition, in recent studies of world-wide unemployment and its relation to the phenomenon of migration, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) calculated that approximately 81 million of the more than 211 million of unemployed (40%) in the world are young people between 15 and 24 years of age. This indicates that the present global economic crisis has hit young people harder than the adult population and has made the labour market situation much worse.

Poverty

Unfairness in the distribution of wealth, unequal ownership of goods and reduced access to social benefits, mean that in the 1990s not enough was done to reduce poverty. Many of the poor are peasants and workers who work for themselves.

Teenage pregnancies are more common among the poor. Rural poverty is most severe among indigenous groups. Poverty not only has economic repercussions, but also has human implications, and produces crime and violence across the country (Iglesias, 2003).

Programmes and projects are needed, accompanied by an integral design that includes the development, execution and supervision with mechanisms to assess and evaluate continuously the impact that initiatives have on poverty. It is important that such programmes engage minority women, children, native peoples and groups, trying to obtain major benefits, since it is these groups that are most likely to be poor.

Investment is needed in education and increasing the quality of education, in the provision of services in health and higher level qualifications, in knowledge of how to obtain major long term benefits, in the reduction of abuses and prevention of violence however they are manifest.

The provision of credit can be complicated and onerous, which limits the investment in high-priority areas such as technological infrastructure, access roads

and communication, the promotion of education and qualifications, and this has an impact on competitiveness and the opening up of new markets.

Technical evolution and technology

Technical progress and economic progress are reflected clearly in the workplace, where they are expressed in the modification, suppression or addition of positions between manuals and non-manual workers in factories and offices. The ease with which those changes can take effect depends partly on the attitudes of workers towards change. That is to say that, nowadays, technological and technical evolution also affects the creation of permanent or temporary employment.

Culture

Without doubt, culture is fundamental to the way that our country will change in the future, in the way that the economy can support the education of our children, who will direct the future of this country.

Nevertheless, we should not lose sight of the fact that nowadays the dominant culture of the majority of young people is shaped by organised crime, which disseminates the idea that this is the best way to obtain economic benefits and a good standard of life. As a country, we have not managed to pass on the culture which takes work and an organized, integrated and informed society as the basis for a stable economy, and therefore a better standard of life for the whole nation.

Conclusions and prospects

The sociology of work is an essential part of the science needed to search for a better future for Mexico, in which industrialists, politicians and unions engage in the search for the common good.

Paradoxically, Mexico is characterised by political nepotism, where politicians are more likely to be seen as protagonists in the culture of individualism, evading their responsibilities, denying any blame and amplifying the deficiencies that can be seen in other parts of society in order to justify their own acts.

Culture, tolerance, conscience and the will to engage, on the part of the governors and the governed, promote or decrease usefulness and the outcomes of interventions and socio-economic programmes in a country. A clear example is where Mexico and Brazil have adopted similar economic policies. In Brazil the dedication, disposition and attitude of the citizens have produced the development of "Giant of the South" ("Gigante del Sur"), an example for all Latin America. Unfortunately, we cannot say the same of our nation.

Sadly, Mexico has been transformed into a dependent country in all the senses. Economically and politically we depend on other countries, and socio-political movements are controlled by a powerful minority. We are a society where social groups emerge and create upward pressure, without dependable initiatives, and where the belief is ingrained that the State has an obligation to provide the means for everyone to succeed. Although this belief has some basis in reality, we must recognise that in a country with a population of more than 200 million, the needs are many and at present we are not self-sufficient.

To develop as a country, we need to develop technologically, academically and economically, as individuals and as a society.

At the moment there has been some progress in growing the community of professionals and researchers in universities and of programmes to support study abroad. Although this has produced some productive links, it has been achieved at a high cost, when compared with the cost of developing manpower and professionals internationally. At the same time, the lack of opportunities at home, for diverse reasons, restrains our development.

Investment in education and culture must not be allowed to stagnate, but lack a good planning for the country as a whole means that those who go overseas do not contribute fully. What is needed is a new vision of the state. It is vitally important to involve the private sector and to ensure that the saturation of markets does not affect any part of the productive sector.

The people who have somehow managed to accumulate capital in this country, and/or manage to be in positions of power in society, must use the power which they have in its hands responsibly and repay society. Lamentably, on repeated occasions, this has not happened, and there is widespread distrust of governors and social leaders.

In the circumstances in which we live, the question should not only be: What can Mexico do for the people? But must be: What can the people do for Mexico? How can we solve these social problems?

We need to motivate and stimulate the population, so that it recovers its confidence and its belief in social institutions and leaders, putting the properly qualified people in the appropriate social positions.

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LISTENING TO THE VOICES OF PRE-SERVICE STUDENT TEACHERS FROM TEACHING PRACTICE: THE CHALLENGES OF IMPLEMENTING THE ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

Abstract

Pre-service teachers in Zimbabwe face a number of challenges on their Teaching Practice (TP) usually because a second language (English) is the language of education. Challenges and experiences articulated by pre-service student teachers on TP therefore provide a strategic window into the practices of novice teachers. This study uses a concurrent mixed approach to examine the challenges faced by B.Ed. pre-service (Primary) student teachers in implementing the English as a second language (ESL) curriculum. Questionnaire, interviews, document analysis and focus group discussions were utilised. The study is based on Shulman's (1987) teacher knowledge framework to identify the worthwhile knowledges for teachers and Cummins's (2000) views on academic proficiency to establish what the ESL curriculum should entail for teachers to effectively manage classroom pedagogy. The teacher knowledge framework postulates that teacher professional competence can be viewed from seven interrelated knowledge strands. This study uses three most pertinent namely – content, pedagogical and curriculum knowledge. Results of the study showed that student teachers face a lot of challenges in teaching ESL and that those challenges can be mediated by the adoption of critical developmental pedagogies that recognize teachers and learners' linguistic competencies as in need of support.

Key Words: Teacher knowledge framework, English academic proficiency, pedagogical practices, ESL teachers and learners

Introduction

Pre-Service teacher education in Zimbabwe has evolved over the years to enhance student quality through strengthening classroom management capacity. One of the components of training receiving close attention is Teaching Practice. Marais and Meier (2004) say that Teaching Practice (TP) is an integral component of teacher preparation that entails the inculcation of professional practice and conduct. The teaching practice window is a crucial time when practicing teachers get the opportunity to develop on-the-job experience and competences in preparation for full time practice. David and Hall (2003) add that TP is a socializing experience into the teaching profession that involves rigorous professional negotiation that leads to the development of confidence. The TP period is also when teacher educators get the opportunity to assess and evaluate the efficacy of their training programmes for continual modifications. Reflections on student teaching experiences are important in the understanding of the effectiveness of teaching practice to improve practice and programmes effectiveness. This is a Scholarship of Teaching Language (SoTL) based on a small scale study carried out on B.Ed pre-service.

The study contexts

The concerns and challenges discussed here are from B.Ed. pre-service student teachers at Great Zimbabwe University (GZU) who finished their TP stint where they implemented the ESL curriculum. B.Ed pre-service is a teacher training programme offered over a four-year full-time period to 'A' Level certificate holders who spent their third year on Teaching Practice. During TP, student teachers are expected to translate theoretical knowledge into pedagogical practice. Kablan (2005) posits that TP offers the possibility of improving the various innovative ways in which new knowledge is constructed and refined for positive meaningful experience.

Methodology

This study examined the challenges faced by student teachers in ESL instruction during TP. A concurrent mixed approach was employed utilizing the questionnaires, interviews, document analysis and focus group discussions. Twenty two student teachers and ten lecturers participated in the study. The twenty two student teachers taught ESL during TP while the ten lecturers supervised and assessed English lessons taught during the same period. Harris (1985) sees TP supervision as a process of monitoring and analysing the teaching and learning process of the school. Data from questionnaires were collected from student teachers about classroom challenges. Informal interviews were conducted with selected lecturers to elicit their views on student teachers' classroom practices and challenges. Document analysis was used to ascertain recurring themes and features (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). TP supervision scripts were the documents analysed. A supervision instrument is a carefully designed form which incorporates the main skills or performance indicators that have to be developed in the pre-service teachers during TP. Forty supervision scripts for English lessons taught during TP were analyzed in two stages as follows; firstly, the scripts were categorized according to topics taught. Secondly, the supervisor's comments were critically examined and explicit comments were taken.

B.Ed. (Primary) Pre-service training in Zimbabwe

Undergraduate pre-service teacher training at Great Zimbabwe University was introduced in the early 2000s to improve the quality of teachers and pedagogical practices following the call by government to shift emphasis from access and quantity to quality and sustainability. Pre-service teacher education therefore needed to continually provide evidence that procedures are accountable, effective and value added. The effectiveness of pre-service teacher training programmes can always be assessed during Teaching Practice (TP). The teaching practice window is a crucial moment when practicing teachers get the opportunity to develop on-the-job professional competence and to experience the transition from students to full teachers. It is an opportunity for pre-service teachers to experiment and test their knowledge and skills in an authentic teaching environment. The rigorous negotiation that takes place during TP leads to higher confidence in improving pre-service teachers' learning and a higher sense of teacher efficacy. By its nature, pre-service teacher learning is a daunting task given the complex nature of classroom dynamics,

the expectations of learners and society. This study examined pre-service teachers' classroom practices and the challenges encountered while on TP. This could serve as a reflective process to put together evidenced challenges that can be used to improve both student teacher practice and training programmes.

English as a Second Language and the Zimbabwe School curriculum

English has continued to establish itself as a global lingua franca in many countries of the world including Zimbabwe where it is used as a medium of instruction. It occupies a high status in the school curriculum as in all formal contexts. The goal of teaching English is to make learners acquire a high linguistic proficiency that enables learners operate effectively in academic and social situations. However, ESL instruction presents host of challenges to teachers and learners who both do not possess the prerequisite proficiency. Vespoor (2003) says that the policy of using English appears to have a major impact on the discursive patterns found in many of the classrooms. Students on TP therefore, face a double-barrelled challenge of being second language users of ESL with the attendant limited proficiency and teachers of ESL learners who grapple worse with acquiring basic linguistic ability, let alone academic proficiency. At their TP stage, student teachers only have a degree of linguistic and professional competence to use to mediate classroom pedagogy and English language teaching. In many cases however, both remain a real challenge especially given the mismatch between their competences and the learners' needs for support. Inevitably, student teachers resort to 'classroom survival skills' such as 'safe talk' (Hornberger & Chick, 2001), ritualised techniques in Zimbabwean primary schools (Ngwaru, 2010) and code-switching between English and Kiswahili in Kenyan classrooms (Bunyi, 2005).

Teacher knowledge framework and academic proficiency

Teacher Knowledge

The Zimbabwean situation is similar to many other bilingual contexts characterised by teachers who are ESL users of English while students are English Language Learners (ELLs). Implicit in the definition is that ELLs' proficiency in English is insufficient for them to academically succeed in English-only classrooms. ELLs have different linguistic and academic needs from first language speakers of English (L1) and need special assistance to bring them to the same grade level proficiency as L1 speakers. Teachers therefore need a strong knowledge base of English in order to effectively assist their learners. Knowledge base refers to a repertoire of knowledge, skills and dispositions that teachers require to conduct classroom practices effectively. Shulman (1987) probes seven categories of teacher knowledge that are essential for effective classroom practice. Three of those (content, pedagogical & curriculum knowledge) are the main focus of this study while four (learners, trends, contexts & values) provide a broader view of the situation.

Content knowledge or subject matter knowledge is the 'what' of teaching usually acquired through adequate exposure to comprehensible linguistic input. It is the knowledge, understanding, skills and dispositions that children should learn Shulman (1987).

Pedagogical knowledge is the 'how' of teaching generally acquired through education coursework and experience in schools Ball (2000). It was later revised and blended with content to become Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) - which is a form of practical knowledge used by teachers to guide their actions in highly contextualised school settings Shulman (1987). It entails knowledge of specific strategies, methods and rules of classroom management that can be used to address student learning needs in particular classroom circumstances. A sound grounding in relevant (PCK) therefore prepares teachers who understand learners' needs, are able to diagnose learners' problems, can select and design suitable learning tasks and make use of authentic instructional materials. This is reminiscent of Freire's (1995; 2006) critical pedagogy. Critical pedagogy is a teaching approach that attempts to help students to question and challenge domination and the beliefs and practices that dominate. Freire endorses students' ability to think critically about their education.

Curriculum knowledge is the 'why' of teaching that justifies worthwhile knowledge required by teachers for effective pedagogy. Pre-service teachers need to be comfortable with the components of the curriculum - how to interpret the curriculum correctly, having the ability to identify suitable goals and objectives for specific lessons and how to develop unique activities that reinforce the lessons being presented. Finally, they need the expertise to effectively implement the curriculum. This paper regards curriculum implementation a process of interaction among student teachers, ESL learners and the learning content. Ndawi and Maravanyika (2011) say that the process of curriculum implementation is based on a number of activities on the part of the teacher and if they miss the point, the intended curriculum is not achieved.

Academic Proficiency

Cummings (2000) indicates that English academic proficiency is a special genre that learners need to develop in order to cope with school knowledge. It refers to a degree to which an individual has access and expertise in understanding and using specific kind of language that is employed in academic contexts and is required to complete academic task. Academic Language Proficiency is the second type of proficiency needed to read books, to participate in debate and to provide written responses to tests. Students require a considerable time as much as seven years to become more academically proficient in English (Cummings, 1981). What that means is that ESL learners frequently confront the demands of academic learning through a yet un-mastered language again making it difficult to achieve expected level of proficiency.

Findings and Discussion

The results reported here are presented and discussed according to 'knowledges' established earlier on.

Academic Proficiency

The results of the study showed that many of the lessons taught were heavily flawed with a variety of weaknesses most of which emanated from the low proficiency levels of most learners and some teachers. The following comments highlight lack of language proficiency on teachers and learners.

Interviews

- There was excessive code-switching from the target language to the mother language
- Pre-service teachers failed to devise meaningful activities from which learners could benefit
- Student teachers failed to make themselves understandable to learners
- Student teachers did not have the confidence to teach English in the presence of a supervisor

Supervision scripts

- Teachers' instructions and explanations were not clear
- Children gave wrong answers and the teacher accepted them as correct
- There was no meaningful pupil to pupil interaction

All the above comments clearly indicate that both teachers and learners have serious problems in using the target language. Both need a certain level of proficiency in order to engage in meaningful pedagogic tasks. Teachers whose English is not good enough can not correct the learners' English hence the acceptance of wrong answers. Cook (1996) laments that if teachers or learners are not fully conversant with the use of English, it is difficult to sustain their activities, hence meaningful and interactive classroom discourse is compromised and code-switching takes centre stage. Cummings (2000) adds that code-switching should be avoided because it acts as an obstacle to competence and fluency hence denying the learner the benefits of education.

Content knowledge

The results of the study showed that although pre-service teachers possessed some level of desirable content knowledge of English, it was not adequate enough to enable them to teach English in ways that are consistent with desired expectations. The following comments highlight pre-service teachers and learners' lack of adequate content knowledge in English.

Focus group discussion

- Some of us had difficulties in extracting the learning content from the syllabus
- Lack of adequate vocabulary and correct grammar made it very difficult to teach composition
- Many of the learners lacked the conceptual understanding of the concepts they had to learn

Questionnaires

- English was rated the most difficult subject to teach
- Oral skills were rated as most difficult to develop
- Integration of language skills was rated as very difficult

Supervision scripts

- Both student teachers and learners heavily relied on textbooks for information
- The lessons were heavily flawed with repetition of concepts resulting in poor teaching
- The teacher did not show adequate mastery of the subject matter

From the above comments it is evident that both teachers and learners face a number of challenges during ESL instruction. This is consistent with Medgyes's (2001) point that the majority of learners grope in the dark unless they are fortunate enough to receive tailor-made support from knowledgeable teachers. Heavy reliance on textbook deprive learners the opportunity to explore their world since actual language use involves many varieties of knowledge.

Pedagogical knowledge

The results of the study showed that: pre-service teachers need a lot of pedagogic English skills to teach English effectively. The following are some of the comments which reveal lack of pedagogic knowledge on the part of students.

Focus group discussion

- We did not know what to do with rowdy pupils during group work
- Varied and meaningful group activities were difficult for to design
- We did not know the appropriate strategies to use for certain lessons

Supervision scripts

- Lesson introductions were not linked to the concepts to be developed
- They moved back and forth and no teaching took place
- Teacher talk dominated the lesson depriving learners the opportunity to interact meaningfully

From the above reports, it is evident pre-service teachers' abilities to impart pedagogic skills were inadequate. Failure to manage group work and to design varied and meaningful group activities that enhanced learner interaction is indicative of lack of adequate PCK. Krashen (1985) says that language acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the target language. The best way are those that supply comprehensible linguistic input in low anxiety situations containing messages that learners want to hear.

Curriculum knowledge and implementation

Supervision scripts

Data from supervision scripts showed that:

- Student teachers lacked the confidence to teach English in the presence of supervisors
- Objectives for oral lessons were poorly stated
- Some students teachers could not differentiate between aims and objectives

It is clear that pre-service teachers need a lot of support to acquire the necessary skills to transmit the curriculum effectively. However, while a lot of serious weaknesses were noted in student teachers' practices, a number of strengths were ascertained. Data from questionnaires indicated that up to seventy percent of the students were very comfortable with teaching reading comprehension and guided composition.

Conclusions

There is no doubt that successful implementation of the ESL curriculum by pre-service teachers in Zimbabwe rests on teacher expertise. Their agency is critical in the attempt to build a cumulative and useful body of knowledge about pedagogy

content knowledge in general. This is why the complexity of teachers' pedagogic content knowledge becomes most apparent. The official curriculum specifies content, which is brought to life by teachers with varying knowledge, and resources working in particular school classrooms.

Recommendations

In view of the above discussion, this study recommends that:

- Critical developmental pedagogies should be applied to ESL teaching.
- Effective methods of assessment on how well pre-service have internalized the theoretical and pedagogic knowledge for becoming effective teachers be put in place.
- Teacher education courses on content knowledge of ESL, vocabulary, grammar and the four language skills should be improved to ensure adequate mastery of essential teaching skills.
- The language curriculum should be more specific about the need for proficiency in the language of schooling for ESL learners to succeed academically.

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IN-SERVICE TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS IN NIGERIA: THROUGH OPEN AND DISTANCE EDUCATION

Abstract

Education authorities have seemed to agree that increasing standards for pre-service education of teachers will not necessarily lessen the need for continued in-service preparation and professional growth. No amount of time spent in college or university will complete the preparation of the teacher for classroom tasks. Teachers, like doctors, ministers, and lawyers, must continue with their education after graduation. Constantly applying new techniques and materials make education in service absolutely necessary. If teachers are to become real leaders in their respective schools, teachers must be provided with a programme of in-service training which is concerned with doing and not merely with listening. Distance education has played a role in meeting these challenges and is likely to play an increasing one. However, the paper examines how open and distance education (ODL) affects teachers professional development and offers suggestions on how ICTS could be used to improved and increased teachers professional skills in Nigeria. In industrialized countries, ODL has been used to reach new constituencies of potential teachers who would not otherwise have become teachers. It has provided qualified university graduates with teaching licences or professional qualifications to support school based training.

Keywords: In-Service, Training, Professional Development, Teachers, Teaching Pedagogy, Open and Distance Education

Introduction

There is increasing and strong interest among governments, institutions, international agencies and teachers in the use of open and distance education methods and technologies for initial training and continuing professional development for teachers. The last decades have seen considerable growth in the number and diversity of distance education programmes, and the integration of distance education with traditional provision and new initiatives using information and communication technologies (ICTs). These trends are prompted by the need to meet teacher shortages and the demand for more continuing education for teachers in a changing world.

Teachers face a widening range of demands everywhere, for example:

Teachers throughout the world are experiencing an unprecedented transition in their role and status and demands on them are becoming increasingly multi-faceted... Many teachers do not have the training or experience to cope with this changing role (European Commission, 2000: 40).

Unfortunately, the high expectations and growing demands on teachers tend to run in parallel with low status, low pay and poor working conditions: 'teachers are at the heart of the education revolution, but many feel under siege... their diminished

status is a worldwide phenomenon' (UNICEF, 1999: 39 in Robinson & Colin, 2003). The situation of teachers had reached what the International Labour Organisation described as 'an intolerably low point', because working conditions had declined (UNESCO, 1998: 38). Many qualified teachers leave teaching for more attractive careers, new graduates are not attracted to teaching, and recruitment into teacher training draws lower-qualified entrants as teaching becomes an occupation of last resort.

The educational level on entry to teaching varies widely. Though the Recommendations Concerning the Status of Teachers (UNESCO & ILO, 1966) proposed the completion of secondary education as a minimum entry standard, this has not yet been achieved worldwide. A typical primary school teacher in one country may have a master's degree and postgraduate teacher training and teach in a well-resourced school with small classes- good pay, a well-defined career path, and access to a choice of staff development opportunities and professional communities of teachers. While in another, a primary school teacher may have completed primary education only, be untrained as a teacher, have two jobs (teaching plus farming, trading or private tutoring), or teach in a poorly resourced school in a remote area with little job security, and no career ladder in teaching and little opportunity for professional development.

In Nigeria, unqualified teachers have been a necessity. Nigeria's considerable achievements in the expansion of Universal free Primary Education in 1976 (UPE) and Universal Basic Education (UBE) in 1999 had resulted in part for the use of unqualified teachers for the former, though these have now been phased out as planning goals start to shift from quantity to quality. The minimum entry to teaching profession is Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE). Many of the issues about the quality of teachers and teacher training are linked to problems of supply and demand, shaped by specific circumstances. Nigeria has too few qualified and trained teachers.

Attempts to solve problems of shortages have included searches for new untapped sources of potential teachers, emergency training schemes and increased use of para-professional teachers. Hence, the need for this paper.

What is In-Service Training?

For the purposes of this paper, in-service training is defined as a workshop for employed professionals, paraprofessionals and other practitioners to acquire new knowledge, better methods, etc. for improving their skills toward more effective, efficient and competent rendering of service in various fields and to diverse groups of people. Further, such a workshop is a training designed to benefit a specific group of teachers at a particular school. A good in-service training should, via workshop trainees and improve the quality of programming for the development of teachers in service.

What is Professional Development of Teachers?

This refers to skills and knowledge attained for both personal development and career advancement. Professional development encompasses all types of facilitated learning opportunities, ranging from college degrees to formal coursework,

conferences and informal learning opportunities situated in practice. It has been described as intensive and collaborative, ideally incorporating an evaluative stage. There are a variety of approaches to professional development, including consultation, coaching, and communities of practice, lesson study, mentoring, reflective supervision and technical assistance

Student achievement is linked to numerous factors, but quality teachers are one of the most important components of student success. If school teachers do not have the tools they need to teach students effectively, their students will suffer. To teach effectively, teachers need access to ongoing teacher professional development. This professional development enables teachers to improve their own education through seminars, workshops, and classes.

Through teacher professional development, teachers learn new teaching strategies to improve the quality of instruction. This allows them to make changes in the way they teach their students, incorporating innovative teaching methods in the classroom. It teaches them how to work with a variety of learning styles, since not all students learn the same way. It also helps teachers change their day-to-day teaching methods, encouraging them to accept new methods based on accurate education research.

What should be the principles for professional development?

Principles for Professional Development should:

- Ensure depth of content knowledge.
- Provide a strong foundation in the pedagogy of particular disciplines.
- Provide more general knowledge about teaching and learning processes, and about schools and institutions.
- Reflect the best available research.
- Contribute to measurable achievements in student learning.
- Expect teachers to be intellectually engaged with ideas and resources.
- Provide sufficient time, support and resources to enable teachers to master new content and pedagogy and integrate these into their practice (American Federation of Teachers, 1995).

What can the various media, technologies and ICT contribute to teacher training?

Impact of ICTs in Distance Education to Teacher Professional Development

The UNESCO (2002) report identifies four different functions of information and communication technologies (ICT) in ODL teacher education:

- as an aid to distribution of materials;
- as a means of affording two-way electronic communication;
- through networked computers which allow access to the internet and multi-way communication; and
- as a means of diversifying into resource-based, self-accessed teacher education.

In many countries it is shown that without appropriate **pre-service teacher training (PRESET)** and **in-service education and training (INSET)**, ICT will never play a central role in educational renewal and innovation.

Pre-Service Teacher Training (PRESET) in ICT

At the PRESET level, teachers clearly need to master the core technical knowledge and skills, this means knowledge and skills to:

- use computers and managing files,
- do word processing,
- create spreadsheets,
- use a database,
- create a presentation, and
- understand basic information and communication technology.

This technical training is often provided in PRESET but is not always a requirement for teacher certification.

In-Service Education and Training (INSET) in ICT

Serving teachers need to be familiarised not only with the technology but with:

- the teaching and instructional design skills that will enable them to help their pupils engage in constructivist thinking, experimentation, problem-solving and learning linked to real life situations;
- how to exploit collaboration tools such as weblogs, wikis, podcasts, Flickr and YouTube so that pupils can create, adapt and share content, discuss issues and support one another's learning;
- the use of e-assessment - that is, not only using ICT for true/false, multiple choice or fill-in-the-blank testing, but also assessing pupils' abilities in self directed study, information retrieval, analysis, synthesis, problem-solving and creativity; and
- the use of e-portfolios - that is, creating multimedia records of pupils' efforts, achievements and reflections on learning for the purposes of conducting formative assessment, showcasing pupils' best work and conducting summative assessment (Kheng et al., 2000).

ICTs that Facilitate the In-Service Training of Teachers

The major types of ICT products currently being studied by teachers include:

- tutorial software and simulations for knowledge transfer; and conceptual development;
- email and conferencing software for communication support;
- groupware and other tools for collaborative learning;
- concept mapping and other tools for conceptual manipulation;
- software for access to educational databases;
- specialized computer-based tools for subject areas such as mathematics and technical drawing;
- software for testing and assessment; and
- different forms of web-based resources (Collis, 2001).

There are widespread examples of the use of ICTs for this purpose. They are as follows:

Virtual Workplace: This is video-conferencing and web-based technologies for synchronous and asynchronous interaction between pre- and in-service teachers. It aims to enhance pedagogy in teacher training, student teachers' learning in their undergraduate studies and teaching practice, and teachers' supervision or mentoring of the students.

Telematics for Teacher Training (T3): This aimed to enhance primary and secondary teachers', teacher trainers' and librarians' professional development and it encourage teacher-trainers to adopt ICT. It is a web-site providing resources for teacher trainers and modelled best practice in site design (Moonen & Voogt, 2001).

The Virtual Teachers Centre: It is Teachers Online project, which allows teachers to link electronically to learn about others' work, create a virtual community of practice, sharing ideas through live chat, and access and share a variety of learning and teaching resources and links to other sites. (Moonen & Voogt, 2001).

EduNet: is an integrated educational internet service for students and teachers managed by the Korea Education and Research Information Services (KERIS). It supports the introduction of virtual learning in primary and secondary schools, provides online teacher training, promotes teachers' networking and supports teachers' voluntary clubs by providing self-training materials and various online forums (Moonen & Voogt, 2001).

TINTIN: was established as an online teacher networking. It provided two teachers' networks, one for teachers of German, the other for teachers of French. These networks used email, listservs and occasionally, face-to-face interaction. The teachers primarily used this network to share information - reflective exchanges occurred rarely-and it was shown that teacher anxiety decreased and productivity-increased during the network experience (Moonen & Voogt, 2001).

The US Teachers Network: is a nationwide, non-profit educational organization that identifies and connects teachers exemplifying professionalism and creativity within public school systems, promotes collaboration among educators to improve teaching and student achievement, provides resources to support teachers in their own professional development, and disseminates the work of outstanding classroom teachers.

Government in Nigeria should help the teachers to use the widespread examples of the ICTs in all teacher education.

Can distance education support continuing professional development and training of teachers more widely, effectively and affordably?

Role of Distance Education in Teacher Professional Development in Nigeria

Teacher education is an important area where distance education has been used extensively to provide pre-service teacher preparation, upgrading of academic qualifications, and in-service continuing professional development and content areas and instructional methods. Many examples, particularly from both developing and developed countries, show that teacher training at a distance may reach large groups of teachers and may have profound impact on the development of national education systems. Examples include distance learning initiatives in countries such as Nigeria,

Burkina Faso, Chile, China, India, Mongolia, and South Africa to prepare new teachers or upgrade skills of the existing teaching force (Ojokheta, 2000; UNESCO, 2002).

It is the acute shortage of qualified primary school teachers that led the Federal Government of Nigeria to establish the National Teachers' Institute (NTI in 1976), a distance education college for teachers upgrading. Its mission was to provide initial teacher qualifications and upgrade the quality of teachers through distance education. Its courses and qualifications were equivalent to those of conventional teachers Colleges. NTI is an educational parastatal; with headquarter in Kaduna and offices in 36 states. It has made enormous contribution to teacher supply and is now an institutionalised part of the teacher education system as its meeting the Education For All 2015 targets.

Distance education plays an increasingly important role in helping to address the growing shortage of teachers. Education institutions in Nigeria are using the internet as the principal or supplementary means of providing both pre-service and in-service teacher education. There are a growing number of high quality Web-based professional development resources available for educators in Nigeria. In addition, the number of universities in Nigeria that are offering online degree programmes and courses for educators across the country has grown exponentially in recent years.

The Web provides teachers with incredibly rich instructional and information resources to enhance their instruction and professional skills and the possibility of on-demand, just-in-time professional development without leaving their classrooms. The Web also provides opportunities for online mentoring and support of novice teachers during their first year of teaching and to develop online communities of practice. Virtual Web-based environments for teachers now enable them to seek help from other teachers, locally, nationally, or globally in solving classroom problems, sharing lesson plans and materials, interacting with experts in particular fields, and in planning collaborative curriculum development projects (Omolewa, 1982).

However, the Web provides an important resource for teacher education institutions and agencies and centres that provide professional development to teachers in the country. In countries with limited access to technology infrastructure/ radio, television and print-based materials are used to address teacher education needs. The China Television Teacher's College, a part of the China Central Radio and Television University, uses television-based distance education to prepare new teachers and provide a range of distance education professional development programmes to primary and secondary teachers, principals and administrators (UNESCO, 2002).

In Nigerian perspective, the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN), have the NOUN radio, also in University of Lagos, Akoka, Nigeria use the UNILAG Radio, and the Institute of Management and Technology, (IMT) Enugu among others are known for their (UNIAIR) programme. These radio stations are where student listens and receives their lectures. These are very popular and are being used by these institutions, to broadcast educational programs of variety on areas such as teacher education, rural development, programme in agriculture for farmers, science education, creative writing, mass communication, in addition to traditional courses in liberal arts, science and business administration (Amadi, 2010).

Also, Brazil's national distance education system, PROFORMACAO, is used to provide initial training to unqualified preschool and primary education teachers and

combines self-study and bi-weekly workshops using print-based and video materials. Other countries with limited technology facilities also rely heavily on print-based materials as well as radio and other media options. India, for example, uses print-based materials, audio and video cassettes, coupled with optional face-to-face tutorials in local study centres, while Mongolia uses radio and print-based materials as part of the strategy to help primary The above examples illustrate some of the ways the technology resources available within each country may be used to provide pre-service and in-service teacher education and Nigeria will not be an exception.

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SYMBOLS OF HYPHENATED IDENTITY DRAWING MAPS (IDM) FOR ARAB AND JEWISH STUDENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF HAIFA¹

Abstract

In 2008, we conducted a large scale study following our methodology developed for the analysis of drawings to assess identity (Hertz-Lazarowitz, Farah & Yosef-Meitav, 2012). We gathered interviews and asked for Identity Drawing Maps (IDM) from 184 students aged from 20-30 years. The symbols in the drawings were grouped in five categories: Religious, National, Emotional, Secular-Cultural and Nature and person figure symbols. The most frequent symbols were related to the nature and person figure category, and the least frequent were symbols from the secular-cultural category. The symbol categories most indicative of identity conflicts were religious and national. The Arabs had more conflicted and complex IDM messages than Jews and the evaluation of their emotions were less positive and less optimistic than the Jews. The IDM methodology revealed the complex and multi-layered expression of identity construction. These findings can provide better understanding into the dynamic of identity construction of youth living in the University context which has been conflict ridden for many decades.

Key words: Hyphenated Identity; Arabs and Jews; Haifa University

Hyphenated identity

The theory of "Hyphenated Identity" (HI) argues that people living in complex political-social contexts construct a "new identity" that include many identities depended on the socio-cultural and political contexts. Research had documented that young adults includes various sub-identities and "live on the hyphen", between identities found in contrast vs. harmony (Farah, Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2009).

Israeli society is bi-national, comprising a Jewish majority and an Arab minority. For many years, the Arab population in Israel was referred by the majority as "*the Arabs*," as a matter of distinction from "*the Jews*". Throughout the years, definitions have changed within each group. Jews and Arabs are now defining themselves by more identity terms. Especially the Arab minority in Israel added many hyphenated identities, among them terms of collective identity: Palestinians, Arab-Palestinians, and Palestinian citizens of Israel (Yosef-Meitav, 2008).

Since the establishment of the State of Israel in 1948, identity has been a core concept that challenged the Israeli society. Particularly challenging has been the term *Jewish*, as it refers to both religion and nationality (Herman, 1977). Young Arabs and Jews have encountered complex political changes, adjusting to greater diversity of ethnicity, culture and religion, while continuing to live in the context of an intractable conflict (Rouhana, 2004; White-Stephan, Hertz-Lazarowitz, Zelniker, & Stephan, 2004). Over time, identity definitions in Israel changed from simple or binary to multiple and more complex identities (Ghanem, 2006). Especially Arabs

¹ We thank to Katsiaficas, Sirin & Fine, for their cooperation in developing the measures.

and Jewish immigrants negotiated their identity via a complex course of action (Gerges, 2003). The aim of this study is to explore the deeper meaning youth in Israel assign to their identities.

The context of the University of Haifa

The University of Haifa is a unique environment for studying how nationality, religion, and ethnicity contribute to students' construction of their identity, and how identity in turn is related to students' perception of their experiences on campus. The University of Haifa is a meeting place for Arab (Muslim, Christian, and Druze) and Jewish students, from different ethnicities. All the students are either religious or secular, with varied ethnic background; political orientation, as well as different calendars that mark their religious and civic life. Within this multifaceted context identities are constantly under reconstruction as young people live in a complex mixture of conflict and harmony.

Since 2001 and up to 2008 Hertz-Lazarowitz and a team of Arab and Jewish researchers conducted annual studies as part of a research seminar entitled "Social psychological aspects of the University". The full questionnaire asks the students to rate attitude on a Likert scale and rates their perception of Haifa University (HU). In those studies students were to choose one identity from a list, and there was an option to add an identity definition (Zelniker, Hertz-Lazarowitz, Peretz, Azaiza & Sharabany, 2009).

In the 2006 and 2008 study students were interviewed in order to explore identity construction. At the end of the interview students were given a blank page and were asked to write their identity definition. They were also asked to draw a picture expressing their identity and write a text related to the drawing. Their written identity definition, plus the drawing, plus the text related to the drawing, constituted the Identity Drawing Map (IDM). This method followed the procedure used by Michelle Fine in her study of Hyphenated Identity (Katsiaficas, Fine, Hertz-Lazarowitz, Sirin, Yosef-Meitav, Farah, Zoabi, 2012). The maps were examined by qualitative and quantitative methods of analyses; and added important understanding of the HI in its current construction. We assumed that in Israel we will also find HI and student that "live on the hyphen", between identities in contrast vs. harmony (Farah & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2009; Hertz-Lazarowitz, Yosef-Meitav & Zoabi, 2007). This study focus is using the IDM methodology to explore HI in a mixed University context. We aim to understand differences as well as similarities, within and between Arabs and Jews.

Method

Participants

In the year of 2008, seventy six Jews (27 from Ethiopia, 32 from Former Soviet Union, 17 born in Israel) and 109 Arabs (31 Druze, 35 Muslims and 43 Christian), all of them UH Students in their third year, from various departments participated voluntarily in the study. They created the IDM as part of the questionnaire; all of the 185 maps were documented and analyzed (Farah & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2009).

This paper presents two types of results: One detailed analysis of two examples IDM as a detailed guide to use the IDM method. Second we present a general

analysis by percentages ($n=185$) to find similarities and differences between Arabs and Jews.

Procedure

Following answering a Likert type questionnaires. Each student was engaged in a one to one, 90 minutes semi structured interviews; students were interviewed about their life in general and specifically on campus. At the end of the interview they were asked to write an identity definition, draw their identity map, and add a brief text related to their map (Yosef-Meitav, 2008; Hertz-Lazarowitz, Yosef-Meitav, Farah & Zoabi, 2010).

Measures

Three coders proceed through three stages of coding the IDM:

(1) Categorization of objects to groups of symbols: First, all objects in the drawing were counted, the sum was 100. Then up to 3 most salient objects were coded in the fitting category of symbols and entered later to the analysis. Examples of symbols within the five categories were:

- a. *Religious symbols*: Mosque, Synagogue, and Cross.
- b. *National symbols*: geographical maps, Israel flag, Palestinian flag.
- c. *Emotional symbols*: heart, family, sadness-tears.
- d. *Secular and Cultural symbols*: books, university, village.
- e. *Nature and person figure*: person, parts of body, trees.

(2) The message of the maps: The coders defined the IDM according to the following distinctions:

- a. *Integrated message*: If symbols of identities (at least two) and text were blended in integration.
- b. *Conflicted message*: if symbols of identities (at least two) and text were depicted with high tension, and intense rage.
- c. *Separated/parallel message*: if symbols of identities (at least two) and text were separated or parallel.

(3) Evaluation of emotion: The coders used 12 emotions. Positive emotions such as satisfaction, pride; and negative emotions such as anxiety, anger. The coders decided in a (1-3) scale if they are very certain (3) or very uncertain (1), about the emotion presented in the map.

Reliability

The coders were three students of psychology and education on their B.A and M.A degree. They were trained 12 hours by the main researcher. Each coder received an identity map, read the text written beside the identity map and described it. They start working individually and then rotated in pairs. At the same time they wrote a protocol which provides a basis for testing the reliability, the coders agreed 90% between them about the three stages of coding of the IDM (Hertz-Lazarowitz, Yosef-Meitav & Zoabi, 2007).

Identity Map Results

We present two IDMs of an Ethiopian Jew and a Muslim Arab.

(1) Abed: Arab – Muslim – male

Background information:

Abed is 21 years old, single, traditional Muslim, Arab, he defines his identity as an **Arab Palestinian who lives in Israel**. He was born in Israel and lived in Arab village.

The identity map drawing: The text

"Maybe my drawing map is influence by the coming independence day, but I feel that the flag meaning the Jewish Zionist flag of the state, is crashing our Palestinian and Arab identity. I draw the Palestinian flag on the soil because it is the soil of our land. The figure of Handala symbolize my Arab identity, the Israeli flag symbolize the occupation that hides both Handala and the Palestinian flag".

Map analysis and summary:

Abed drew three national symbols in different sizes: a small Palestinian flag, a large Israeli flag over the whole page and a figure of Handala² which became a known symbol for the Palestinians occupation. The Israeli flag symbolize the oppression of the Palestinian people, on the legs of Handala he drew the Palestinian flag. The Israeli flag is overruling the Palestinian flag; Abed writes that he is not satisfied living in Israel. The map expresses a message of conflict between s national and civic identities; the emotions expressed are sadness and other negative emotions.

Shmual: Jewish male born in Ethiopia

Background information:

Shmuel is 28 years old, single, traditional Jewish, he defines his identity as a **Jewish-Ethiopian**. He was born in Ethiopia and lives in Jewish settlement.

The identity map drawing : The text

"I am a Jewish man that immigrated to Israel from Ethiopia, I am very pleased here, I want to continue living in the land of Israel, I want to grow roots, develop and help the Ethiopian community. As my family has adapted to the new state and overcome some difficulties, I want other Ethiopian families develop and always remained in the land on Israel".

Map analysis and Summary:

Shmuel drew many symbols in four categories. **National:** an Israeli flag, an Ethiopian flag and a map of Israel. **Religious:** Star of David. **Secular and Cultural:** an Ethiopian house, (the hot) Nature and Person figure he draws himself. The map expresses a message of integration "being an Ethiopian Jew". His positive emotions are expressed in pride, hope and elevation.

Shmuel drew a human figure with dark blue face and curly hair. On his body there is a map of Israel and above him a large Israeli flag with glorified stars of David around. On the left there is a colorful Ethiopian flag and there is a typical Ethiopian hot (home). Shmuel defined himself as **Jewish-Ethiopian** and writes about the close connection with the Ethiopian community and his desire to help them. He uses a lot of symbols to express his jewishness but he keeps the Ethiopian symbols as well.

² From approximately 1975 through 1987 Naji Al-Ali created cartoons that depict the complexities of the plight of Palestinian refugees. These cartoons are still relevant today and Handala, the refugee child who is present in every cartoon, remains a potent symbol of the struggle of the Palestinian people for justice and self-determination.

Finding and Discussion

IDMs comparison (N=185)

Similarities: The two groups generated the same symbol categories and had similar percentages of symbols in each of the categories. For both groups, percentages of Nature and person figure symbols were highest; followed by national and emotional Categories. Only two categories out of five: National and Religious, include symbols that expressed the source of conflicts. The religious symbols in Israel are naturally politically expression of conflict, oppression, unjust and occupation. Those are the events that are perceived by the Arab and the Jews as threat to their life experiences.

This finding comes with the data that Arabs expressed more negative emotions than Jews, (anger and sadness). These emotions pertain to their difficult and discordant existence among the Jewish majority, and to the continuous oppressed existence of their Palestinian brothers under the Israeli occupation (Hertz-Lazarowitz, Zelniker & Azaiza, 2010). The reality in Israel is that on one hand Arab can express their love for the Palestinian flag, but this flag is not recognizing in Israel and cannot be part to a political approved demonstration.

It is a positive sign that student can express their positive and negative emotion in regard to these symbols and toward the University. But the Israeli-Jewish culture gives priority to the Jewish religious symbols in the daily life on campus and in the State. But slowly some positive changes are taking place on campus. Mixed classrooms are the routine. Students live within an island of coexistence and cooperation for the last forty years. Inter-religion dialogue groups are formed. Prayer places are assigned to different religion groups. Few civil groups continue for years to create a dialogue and understanding sites for different groups. The holidays of all religions are now acknowledged by UH authorities, thus we can dream and imagine a reality where national and religious symbols will reach more acceptance and respect from all groups.

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THE CONTEMPORARY TRANSDISCIPLINARY APPROACH AS A METHODOLOGY TO AID STUDENTS OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

One of the major problems students of humanities and social sciences face is the choice of methodology which they should employ in the theoretic discussion of a given task. In the learning process they are presented with the most essential and emblematic authors and their works relating to the students' major. This provides them with rich theoretic knowledge and creates epistemological competency. However, the moment they attempt a more in-depth study in the form of a thesis or dissertation, they are in a quandary as they realize that they are unaware of the appropriate way of compiling and assembling information which must not only reflect their findings as a new element in their research but it must also delineate the academic approach and contribution of their studies.

This is due to the fact that in the course of their education the necessity of methodological competency is largely neglected and is rarely included as part of their curriculum. Certainly, there exists a logical explanation to support such approach. Not all students graduating with a major in humanities or social sciences will continue with further academic research activities. In fact, the number of students who have the intellectual capacity and desire to embark on this career path is relatively small. However, the needs of those students who do elect to take the extra step should not be overlooked.

Thus, one of the most common practices is for the mentor to assign a specific author and/or task relevant to the intended research activity which brings the student to the dilemma of making the right theoretic choices and selecting the proper methodological course of action.

As a result, here comes the transdisciplinary approach as a move forward toward a novel possibility aimed at helping students to successfully carry out their research in the field of humanities and/or social sciences. The dynamics of modern society and subject research lead to a process that tackles the problem of transferring knowledge and methods from one theoretic field to another.

The term transdisciplinarity is used for the first time by the French psychologist and structuralist Piaget. By employing this term he stresses the need for interaction among various subjects and branches of learning especially in the field of education. In its present classification the place of the transdisciplinary approach is hard to define as it is concurrently in, through, and beyond any academic subject. Today, according to the *Encyclopedia of Life Support Systems* (EOLSS), it signifies a new philosophic movement.

Therefore, the need arises for students to be familiarized with the differences between disciplinary, multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary, and transdisciplinary approach to doing research.

Unlike the disciplinary or subject research which aims at a single level of reality, transdisciplinarity is oriented towards the dynamics characteristic to the interplay of several levels of reality. The latter must be distinguished from the levels of organization, which, according to the systemic approach, may represent identical

levels of reality and may not lead to violation of basic laws. The systemic approach stipulates that two levels of reality are different when the transition from one level to another leads to the violation of fundamental principles and scientific laws.

The transdisciplinary approach, regarded as a process, is characterized by integration and overriding of subject boundaries. As a 'scientific utopia', it stands out as an intellectual category requiring a wide range of disciplinary, scientific, and epistemological potential. It is different from the multi- and interdisciplinary approach in a way that, on one hand, it transcends the subject boundaries, and, on the other, it is not part of any specific subject research. Thus, the transdisciplinary approach allows for the understanding of the complexities of the modern world which is a primary feature of its scientific legitimacy.

The need for a relationship among various academic subjects has led to the emergence of the multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches in the middle of the 20th century. The former studies an object, which is the focus of research of several subjects at the same time. For instance, the study of a single cell is incorporated in different subjects taught to students of medicine such as embryology, cytology, physiology, biophysics, pathology, etc. The interdisciplinary approach is characterized by the transfer of research methods from one subject to another. These synergic models are applied to the studies of a number of academic subjects such as sociology, philosophy, and linguistics in the context of a quest for new research methods.

The transdisciplinary approach, as indicated by the prefix 'trans-', signifies a research which is carried out among different subjects, moves through and goes beyond them. It aims at understanding the modern world.

The disciplinary approach in research is directed at one of the levels of Reality. Here, one must distinguish between the levels of Reality and levels of organization. The latter, as defined in the systemic approach, may belong to an identical level of Reality and they do not suggest a violation of essential concepts. The various levels of organization reflect the different structuring of the same fundamental laws.

Unlike the disciplinary (subject) research, the transdisciplinary approach is interested in the dynamics borne out by concurrent interaction of several levels of Reality. The levels of Reality are a cluster of systems invariant to the relations among a host of common laws. For example, the laws governing macrophysics are no longer valid for the laws governing the micro world. This means that two levels of reality may be different if basic laws and concepts are violated while going from one level to the next. Therefore, it becomes mandatory that the process of understanding the foregoing dynamics go through the disciplinary (subject) approach to knowledge first. The transdisciplinary approach, although not new as a method of research, feeds on the disciplinary (subject) research, which thus become illuminated in a new and fruitful way created by the dialectic relations between them.

Reality has trans-subjective dimension due to the fact that even a single ordinary experiment can destroy a well-formulated theory. The transdisciplinary approach rises above the limits of science established with the dawning of the New Age.

Contemporary research approaches lay down the need for dual development – on one hand, through analysis, and on the other, by understanding the complexities of the modern world. This is where the transdisciplinary methodologies come

forward. They offer the possibility of tracking down the genesis of some key concepts employed in the modern methodological practices.

Methodology is a subject which deals with the structure, logical organization, methods, and means of a specific activity. Methodological knowledge consists of two different forms, namely normative and descriptive. The normative methodology is a collection of rules and norms which stipulate the content and sequence of specific activities. The descriptive methodology is in fact a description of the order in which the actual activities are performed. In both cases, the basic purpose of the methodological knowledge is the internal organization and regulation of the information process or, in other words, the actual transformation of the subject under discussion.

Modern science is characterized by the rapid development of the so-called pan-scientific methodological concept and the research methods related to it, such as the interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary, and transdisciplinary approach. This is supported by the following circumstances:

Firstly, the academic studies treat more complex subjects from the natural and social environment. This leads to the increase in the abstract level in which a subject is analyzed and to the decrease of the level of its transparency. For instance, a complex subject such as urban development is difficult to undergo discussion through a single example because it consists of a multitude of natural, social, and technological elements, which in turn are discussed separately in different academic topics. In these circumstances, the research tools and approach to analyzing a subject acquires a central role in the world of knowledge.

Secondly, a set of tasks related to methodology creates an interconnection between science and practice, which leads to solving more complex problems such as the problems in education. This brings the need to act on two levels: experts from various academic fields should combine their efforts in building a universal model which tackles the complexity of a specific subject and also the concepts and solutions that present information about that subject should be united under a common practical system.

The scientific characteristics of the modern trends in methodology establish certain philosophic grounds which are reflected in the broader picture created by science in the world around us. Thus, we cannot ignore the images and content set forth by these characteristics as they are closely interrelated with the important role of methodology.

Methodology encompasses various heuristic, systematic, and ideological elements. These elements are organized in an orderly manner and characterize scientific knowledge. The basic components of Science are the images and concepts of principal objects (the world, the universe, etc.) as well as the typology and classification of objects according to a specific pattern and their relation to space and time.

Together with the role of methodology, the development of epistemology is an aspect to be reckoned with in search of new meanings and answers to questions in the world of science, as our civilization strives for solutions and life-long strategies. The changes in modern science coincide with the quest for new ideas and meanings in the field of culture, philosophy, religion, art, etc.

Therefore, it is important to direct our attention to three groups of questions, which arise out of the need for understanding the modern stages of development of methodology.

1. Do the complexities which exist when discussing topics from the natural and social sciences need to make scientific knowledge more complicated as well? Should there be a single viewpoint on the development of the world of knowledge or can we allow for multiple analyses?

2. Based on which subject concept do we apply the synthetic model and the results of studying the complex subject? What kind of language do we use for the findings to be clearly understood by scientists in different fields?

3. In the process of carrying out a study, the characteristics irrelevant to the research topic are either eliminated or the researcher simply chooses to ignore them. Here, a question arises as to whether the researcher always relates the topic under investigation to the already established scientific knowledge?

It is obvious that the answers to these questions are held in the concepts and directives of methodology (interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary, transdisciplinary) which represent the main components of scientific knowledge such as the issues discussed, their classification, their relationship and interaction in space and time.

The transdisciplinary approach has its own general view on science and knowledge. This view as such stands for a single system of universal order. The area under discussion as well as the various processes and their interaction within this system represent its usual elements. In this case, the transdisciplinary approach serves as a basic tool which researchers use in normative and descriptive methodology. Thus, transdisciplinarity becomes an academic subject of its own. It has all the necessary qualities which make it possible for that approach to be part of the educational system and to be implemented in the process of solving problematic tasks relating to natural and social sciences.

Proposal for developing a Center for Transdisciplinary Studies (CTS)

Main objectives:

- Creating a policy for teaching the concepts and methods of the transdisciplinary approach in universities;
- Creating and developing special skills for utilizing transdisciplinary methods by regular students, PhD students, and teachers within the university system, which should aim not only at solving problematic tasks relating to natural and social sciences but also at coping with the challenges that lie ahead in their professional environment.

In conjunction with its main goals, CTS may be established in the following areas:

1. Organization and Methodology;
2. Education and training;
3. Major scientific studies;
4. International scientific projects.

Organization and Methodology:

- Seeking out the most effective forms of organizing and implementing CTS;
- Designing a course in transdisciplinary methodology according to a specific major;

- Supplying relevant materials to university libraries.

Education and training:

- Designing a curriculum and ensuring students' access to relevant literature and materials; teaching basic concepts of transdisciplinary methodology;
- Teacher training in transdisciplinary methodology;
- Organizing courses in transdisciplinary methodology according to a specific plan – as a core requirement or as an elective course;
- Setting up seminars and conferences in line with relevant topics which motivate and encourage the use of transdisciplinary methodology to solve departmental problems.

Major scientific studies:

- Analyzing the existing concepts in the transdisciplinary approach and methodology;
- Designing methods and techniques for applying the transdisciplinary approach to practice;
- Performing necessary scientific research and experimental studies to create strategies in order to solve urgent problems in the field of education;
- Conducting scientific conferences in order to generate and share good practices in applying the transdisciplinary approach when solving problematic tasks in Academia.

International scientific projects:

- Coordinating international cooperation in search of ways to introduce the transdisciplinary approach in the field of tertiary education;
- Organizing or participating in international conferences to exchange good practices in applying the transdisciplinary approach in the field of tertiary education;
- Borrowing and incorporating existing transdisciplinary methods in order to solve academic problems;
- Ensuring university support and teacher training in transdisciplinary methodology;
- Providing methodological assistance and support to universities which have already introduced academic centers for transdisciplinary research.

In conclusion, the use of transdisciplinary approach is a way to broaden one's academic view on life. This may be achieved by expanding scientific knowledge, by creating a common model of tackling complex subjects, and by improving the methods used in dealing with such complex subjects.

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MILO MILEFF**INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES: SELECTING AND DEVISING TASKS****Introduction**

In the present paper and the discussion that follows, I present aspects of test construction and a careful description of instructional objectives. Constructing tests involves several stages such as describing language objectives, selecting appropriate test task, devising and assembling test tasks, and devising a scoring system for evaluation purposes. Tests can be classified according to their reference, that is, something external that serves to give test scores meaning. Thus, I distinguish between norm referenced and domain referenced testing. The former are in reference to performance and the latter to a general domain of skills and knowledge. In other instances, tests can derive significance through reference to more restricted domains such as those delineated in instructional plans and practices. These are called objective referenced tests. The focus here is on objective referenced tests because of their particular relevance to evaluation in second language classroom. I also present guidelines for devising closed-ended and open-ended test tasks. These guidelines are part of a larger process of devising valid tests that are compatible with the focus, range, and standards of performance specified or included in instructional objectives.

Instructional objectives

I distinguish between two sorts of objectives based on their generality. There are general instructional objectives, which include the skills, abilities, or knowledge students are expected to learn from extended instruction, such as an entire course. They are often expressed as the overarching goals of the course. In addition, there are specific instructional objectives that are reflected in day-to-day instruction of units and lessons. These more specific kinds of objectives are variously referred to as syllabus, unit, or lesson objectives and they are associated with course objectives around which actual instruction is usually planned and built. Although there are different kinds of objectives I focus here on language learning objectives. It is crucial that the description of language objectives be accurate and complete and in a form that is useful for making tests. I point out two methods of describing language objectives for the purposes of devising objectives-referenced tests.

Objectives as tasks

The most important way of stating language objectives is in terms of test tasks. Consider three examples which by no means exhaust all possible objectives a teacher might expect to find. The first example has a skill focus. Here, students will be able to answer factual questions including in their answers levels of probability. The second example has a structure focus in which students should be able to answer correctly multiple-choice items related to vocabulary, syntactic structure, and morphological structure. The third example entails communicative or notional focus, where students should have the ability to sustain a conversation in English or any L2 for that matter about every day affairs and popular topics. Objectives

described in this way provide not only the form of the tasks, namely, conversation, multiple-choice, etc., but also the standard of performance expected in terms of time framing, percentage or degree of success, etc. The second advantage has to do with the validity of the test, which represents the skills one wants to measure. Yet another advantage to this method is that it allows teachers and students to focus their efforts due to a clear and precise statement of objectives. However, some drawbacks do exist. In utilizing this method there can be a tendency to concentrate on skills that are easy to test while leaving out other skills not so easy to test. In other words, objectives may be selected because of their amenability to testing rather than their value to language learners. Therefore, if objectives are described independently, this problem can be overcome.

Objectives for learning

Here, I consider the linguistic content focus and content range of the objective in addition to the standard of performance expected of the students.

Content focus

Instructional objectives can be described in terms of performance skills (such as reading or speaking), communicative language use (including reference to specific notions L2 learners will be able to express), specific structures (such as word order or pronominal reference), or a combination of these. In any case, the linguistic content that is the focus of instruction should be clearly identified in the objective. This is necessary when appropriate tasks for the measurement of these skills are selected for use in tests. In other words the linguistic content described in the language objectives determines the linguistic focus of the test tasks if they are to be a valid indicator of attainment of the objectives.

Content range

The range of objectives refers not only to the nature of the linguistic or content to be learned but also to the conditions in which learners are expected to demonstrate their skills. The range can be specified in several ways. One is by identifying the issues, topics, or themes that the learners will be able to handle utilizing their new language skills. For instance, if the linguistic focus in the objective is syntax, one aspect of the range might be that learners are expected to be able to parse out sentences with comprehension. This is referred to as thematic range of objective. Another range specified in the objective might be the style or genre of language that learners are expected to cope with such as formal versus informal language. This is referred to as the stylistic range of the objective. A third aspect of range concerns the functional range of the skills to be acquired.

However, instructional objectives often specify one aspect of language content and leave other features unspecified, which may result in such objectives being overly general. That is, if the objective is expressed in terms of linguistic structures then the range must be specified in terms of performance skills and even communication skills. As an example, let us say that the instantiation of syntactic A movement versus A' movement is identified as the instructional objective for a lesson. This represents a structural skill. The objective must be expanded to identify implications of the instantiation in oral or written language and/or comprehension. Moreover, are the students expected to formulate hypotheses or conjecture about

other syntactic rules? These aspects of the objective need to be specified in order to narrow down the initial structural objective.

To summarize, in order for language objectives to be useful in test development, it is important to specify the range of language learning that is expected be it thematic, stylistic, and/or functional.

Standards of performance

Standards basically tell us how to determine whether the objective has been attained. They specify both the quality and the level of performance that students are expected to acquire if L2 learning is to be successful. Two of the most common bases for assessing linguistic proficiency are accuracy and effectiveness. Accuracy can be used as the basis for assessing spelling and grammar in written language whereas effectiveness is often used for assessing communication skills. Another frequently assessed quality is appropriateness such as familiarity with the use of formal and informal modes of communication in spoken language. Other qualities used in assessment are authenticity and quantity. They are used mostly when evaluating speaking and writing skills and they reflect, for example, how long a student can speak on a topic or how close a learner is to what a native speaker might say or do. Speed is yet another quality that is sometimes assessed with respect to reading, writing, or speaking. While quality tells the instructor what aspects of linguistic performance to consider when assessing proficiency on a topic, level is a matter of how good a student performance must be with respect to a particular quality so that the teacher may conclude that the objective has been attained. A useful way of defining levels of performance is to provide models or samples of performance that reflect the level of performance one expects of successful L2 learners. Otherwise this way of describing language objectives may prove to be potentially limiting because language skills that cannot be tested easily may be excluded.

Selecting and devising tasks

Once language learning objectives have been identified and defined, the next task is to select those we wish to test. It is preferable to choose a sample of objectives to test before beginning test construction in order to avoid biases that can arise otherwise such as items that are easier to test or topics that stood out in class because they were recently taught. Two commonly used procedures for selecting objectives to test are random sampling and stratified sampling procedures. Random sampling of objectives is recommended only if all objectives are equally important. Otherwise teachers run the risk of not including important objectives and therefore not testing them. Stratified sampling on the other hand requires that all possible objectives be identified and then organized according to some criterion of importance, namely communicative, structural, and/or functional.

Clearly, the most important factor to consider when choosing which type of test task to use is the overall objective. Closed-ended tasks allow assessment of comprehension skills in both reading and listening but not speaking or writing. That is, a learner's ability to perform on a closed-ended task does not necessarily mean that the individual would be able to produce the corresponding language in an open-ended task. Also related to language objectives, closed-ended tasks permit the

examiner to assess specific language skills since they are controlled totally by the examiner. In comparison, open-ended response tasks do not control the students' specific responses and they can often find ways of responding to test items that are different from what was intended by the examiner.

At this point, I wish to point out that it is important to realize that not all authentic language tasks are open-ended. For example, filling out forms are quite formulaic. In addition, not all authentic language use involves oral communication. Reading and writing are also characteristic of authentic language use. Even multiple-choice tests can be an authentic language task for L2 learners in schools where the medium of instruction is L2. Because they are less structured than closed-ended tasks, open-ended tasks are often used to assess the skills of advanced learners. In contrast, low level learners do need the structure imposed by closed-ended test tasks. However, multiple-choice tasks for testing beginning level learners can be demanding if care is not taken to avoid unnecessary complications. Open-ended tasks are suitable for testing speaking and writing skills because they require language production. In fact, they call for a variety of language skills such as spelling, vocabulary, and grammar skills in addition to discourse and sociolinguistic skills.

Scoring

Because the specific responses to be made by test-takers in open-ended tasks are not controlled in any precise way, devising such tasks does not require the same technical precision as closed-ended tasks. Open-ended tests are different from closed-ended tests in that they usually consist of only one item (essay), although this is not always the case. In contrast, tests made up of closed-ended tasks generally include a number of items.

Domain reference

Test scores can be interpreted with reference to domains of skills or knowledge. Use of domains for test construction purpose requires consensus on what knowledge or skills comprise the discipline of interest. The important point here is that in order to be a frame of reference for test construction and interpretation, a domain must be finite and known. If this is done, it then becomes possible to assess performance on the test with reference to how much of the domain in question has been mastered by individual L2 learners. Thus, whereas norm-referenced tests provide interpretations of test scores relative to other learners, domain-referenced tests provide interpretations of test scores relative to an identified domain of knowledge or skill.

Objectives reference

Objective referencing is similar to domain referencing in that it provides for the interpretations of test scores with respect to a defined area of knowledge or skills. The main difference is that it does not require consensus on the description of a domain or a field of study. Instead, it depends on the description of the knowledge or skills that make up a particular lesson or course. What is important about objective referencing is that the domain is conceptualized in local instructional terms. This means that, generally speaking, students should be tested in ways that

resemble how they were taught (only if the instructional methods are an appropriate reflection of the instructional objectives).

Final word

When selecting appropriate test tasks, one should take into account the instructional activities that have been used in class. Students may not be able to demonstrate the full extent of their proficiency if a test task is selected that they have not seen before because the task demands may not be clear to them. Surely, an indication of language proficiency is the ability to use language in different situations. Judgment is called for when choosing test tasks that are different from but related to the activities used in class. In some cases, special efforts need to be taken to simulate the performance demands of authentic situations in which L2 will ultimately be used because the target situations are different from those in the classroom.

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PROBLEM ORIENTATED EDUCATION ON THE BASIS OF HYPER-CODED TEXTS (PLAY AND HEURISTIC)

This paper represents part of my experience, received during the seminar named *Practical Hermeneutics*, which I lead since 2006 to 2010 year at the Institute for Philosophical Research – Bulgarian Academy of Sciences. The participants are from different field of knowledge and with different scientific status – from PhD students to professors and doctors of sciences. The main topic of the seminar was particular kind of texts, named by me “hyper-coded” because of superimposing of codes from different fields of human culture, science, practice, technology etc. The aim of the seminar was to reveal the variety of codes, hidden by different authors in their texts. The multiformity of interweaved codes could be found even in small texts like surrealist prose-poems.

The dialogic form of interpretation allowed testing and proving of different hypotheses (Lichev, 1991: 21-22). In my opinion this form could be used in educational workshops with students. Its goal is not only understanding of hidden sense or meanings of text, which are superimposed in its vertical structure (Todorov, 2004: 101), but to reveal the multiformity of some literary texts and to improve the ability to search new knowledge because of needs of interpretation and understanding. This kind of education is based not on didactical principles but on readiness for self-depending work with texts, lead in the beginning by a most experienced interpreter. It could be used in special courses for students in humanities (Lichev & Obreshkov, 1992: 200-201).

Realization of such kind of problem-orientated teaching could be accomplished in high schools also. The first step is organization of seminar with teachers of literature, philosophy, ethics, psychology, logic etc. for perfecting of their knowledge and skills. The literary examples could show how complicated the human world is arranged and how conditionally disciplinary distinctions, inherited from classical science, are. In this way the high school teachers would improve their interdisciplinary knowledge and could implement it in their work with students.

Such problem-orientated education could be successful if the painstaking work with hyper-coded text receives a playful form in the cognitive sense of word (Lichev, 1996: 149). According to D. Winnicott, one of the most distinguished representatives of theory of object relationships, the play creates *third space* besides the inner psychic space and the external world. This is the space of creativity and imagination. Internal experience receives an external form in the third space. D. Winnicott studied the play of small children but his conclusions are valid for a wider spectrum, in particular for understanding of artistic behavior (Winnicott, 1999: 54-55).

Play is an important concept not only for psychoanalysts. It is used in theory of culture and in philosophy of language also. J. Lacan defines the man as a “language being”. According to J. Huizinga man is “a playing being” (*homo ludens*). If we integrate these two definitions we can say that the man is a language playing being.

U. Eco refers to L. Wittgenstein’s theory of language games and family similarities (Eco, 1999: 31). The same theory can be applied for understanding of

ways of invention of new kind of metaphors or neologisms, used in hyper-coded texts. As Aristoteles pointed out, if the literary speech walks away from everyday speech, it begins to sound enigmatically (Aristoteles III, 2). The theory of family similarities creates the possibility to interpret the conundrums concealed by some authors deliberately in their texts. For that reason the accent has to be put on the *intention* of the *texts*, not of the *intentions* of the *author* or of the *reader*.¹

Following these ideas we can say that interpretation of texts could turn from tedious learning of analyses into intellectual play if the interpreter could be motivated to use their intellectual potential and curiosity. That could be accomplished not in a didactical way. The interpretation could become more interesting by using of playful interactive approaches. In this case the students will be actively involved in the event of interpretation of text.

Language games allowed us not only to understand some strange or enigmatic places in texts but to invent also language innovations during the interpretation and by following of interpretative routes traced by the author. L. Wittgenstein's theory of family similarities explains the opportunity for throwing bridges between different semantic fields which are in the first glance not connected. We can depict these interpretative routes hidden by the author and in this way can elaborate new, analytic metaphors. That means improving and developing of creative potential on language basis. Human ability to play with words becomes in this way a basis of heuristics.

Hyper-coded texts appear at first sight meaningless at their surface. The first step of their interpretation is identification of problem situation caused by lack of knowledge and understanding (Lichev, 1994a: 84; Lichev, 1994b: 164). The seminar form creates in the participants a precondition for transfer of knowledge and for enrichment of their interpretative skills. From this point of view discussion has to lead to increasing of communicative skills of participants also (Lichev, 1995: 78-84).

Critique discussion is a decisive factor for problem orientated education (Lichev, 2001: 60-65). The latter has to be organized in the form of regular seminars. The main idea is that *language innovations* arise as results of *symbolic plays* not only with the *polysemantic* of words, but with different *codes* also. Revealing of these innovations needs thinking orientated towards discovering of semantic problems. That means building of abilities for overcoming the limitations of monodisciplinary approaches. Interpretative revealing of codes and meanings, involved by the author in his/her text, contributes to the transformation of the *reader* into a *co-author*, who is able to finish writing through widening and enrichment of his/her knowledge and skills.

The aim of the seminar form of interpretation is to reveal the main semantic techniques, used in vertical encoding. Integration of concepts from different scientific branches has to unfold the way in which combining of codes creates not only language innovations, but idiosyncrasies of meanings also. Questions which have to be answered are:

¹ "Between the unattainable intention of the author and the arguable intention of the reader there is transparent intention of the text, which disproves an untenable interpretation" (Eco, 1992: 78).

- 1) which are the most frequently used codes in hypercoded texts;
- 2) which theoretic concepts allow recognition and decoding of code's variety;
- 3) how is integration of these concepts in an interdisciplinary, interpretative approach possible.

This kind of education needs organizing of a collective of investigators capable of creating interdisciplinary bridges between different theoretical approaches. On the second hand, they have to be able to apply the new approach towards the complex texture of texts. This can be done by achieving of interdisciplinary knowledge, which demands overcoming of some problems.

Interdisciplinary communication between different specialists demands translation (interpretation) of concepts of one scientific discourse to another. That means the concepts should be defined on a lower level of specification. In communicative process a non-specialist in some particular scientific field understands new concepts in a more naïve way and later enriches them with more complex theoretical content.

The main idea is that the scientific communication could become a factor stimulating the contacts:

- 1) between investigators from different scientific fields;
- 2) between professors and students;
- 3) between investigators and teachers in schools;
- 4) between teachers and pupils.

Such dialogue-orientated education could become a particular form of realisation of the J. Delor's idea of knowledge-based society. The analysis of texts, containing diversity of codes, can lead not only to a new theory and methodology of interpretation. It would become a basis for understanding of contemporary culture with its diversity and multiformity.

The idea of overcoming of "conflict of interpretation" (P. Ricoeur) has not still received systematic methodological elaboration. Contemporary approaches towards the text are still connected with disciplinary differentiation, inherited from classical science. That is why it is difficult for them to discover and study the complex phenomena of signifying, which are inherent to the vertical structure of text. R. Bartes distinguished five narrative codes: proairetical, semiotic, hermeneutic, social and cultural (Bartes: www.slideshare.net/alexgabriel/barthes-codes-theory).

Together with them also many codes act on micro level. Decoding of meaning of one sign may bring to another one, which interpretation demand a new code, which can be unfamiliar to the literary critic, philosopher, psychoanalytic or another specialized investigator.

The main form of interpretation – psychoanalysis, philosophical hermeneutics and eschatology are not able to exhaust the symbolic wealth of texts, which contain combining of codes from different fields of human culture, science and practice. Bringing out of meanings and senses, hidden in the vertical structure of text, demands identifying of codes used by the author and interpretative work in the discovered semantic fields. Additional difficulties spring up in cases of intertextual references.

The paradox of interpreting of hyper-coded texts is that solving of non-standard cases requires using non-standard approaches which however can not be described in standard terms because every author uses idiosyncratic form of coding of

meanings and senses. That explains impossibility of elaboration of universal algorithm for interpreting of hyper-coded texts.

The main question which arises here is the following: How the interpretation of idiosyncratic meanings, encoded in a textual entity, could become independent of interpreter's subjectivity and be accepted as "objective"? The solution of this problem is connected with the fact that meanings, encoded in "vertical" dimension of text find their verification on the horizontal dimension of narration. In addition the decoding of hidden meanings is subordinate not to imagination of interpreter but to laws and rules of codes belonging to various spheres of human culture, knowledge and practice.

In this way, initial interpretation of hyper-coded texts needs eliminating of semantic and logical ambiguity by asking questions in a certain conceptual horizon. It is extremely important from methodological point of view to establish an interdisciplinary connection between philosophical logics of interrogatives (logic of questions and answers) and psychology of creative thinking, which reveals ways of dealing with non-standard problems that require using unconventional perspectives and original approaches.

Heuristic aspects of problem orientated education based on interpretation of hyper-coded texts from that point of view are related to development of capabilities of participants for asking questions to themselves and to the others and for independent searching for new information. This would become possible if the beginners in interpretation develop skills for recognizing of details like logical and grammatical declination, contradictions, absurdities etc. These seeming oddities have to direct their attention towards necessity of vertical interpretation. Following this logic the interpreters have to search for keys which allow them to understand hidden or encoded meanings of these *oddities*. For that reason they have to search for additional information. The direction of their interpretative investigations could be given by their supervisor.

The last step is applying of acquired new knowledge to concrete cases. That means building up abilities for using of scientific concepts in new fields – different from these one where they were initially created. From philosophical point of view this procedure is related to Kant's view on the schematism of imagination.

Collective form of interpretation has to lead to enrichment of team member's theoretical knowledge and on this basis development of skills and capability for argumentation and verification of interpretative hypothesis. Each interpretation inevitably deals with hypotheses which have to be proved, rejected or modified according to the overall composition of text. Misinterpretations are related to pseudo problems. Their sequel leads to nonsense and contradictions. Another form of misinterpretation is elaboration of new interpretative *ad hoc* hypotheses regarding possible hidden meanings which could give sense to some vague fragment of text. The principle "regresio ad absurdum" could be used for eliminating of these misinterpretations.

Hyper-coded texts suggest the possibility of very strong verification of interpretative hypothesis. Vertically superimposed meanings have their projections on different places of narrative, horizontal axis. The connection of first, the latent and encoded meanings, with the second, which could be found on the surface of text as their verifications, can outline the variety of interpretative routes (F. Rastier).

This connection between vertical and horizontal axes can be described by following analogy: a picture can be drawn by connecting of consecutively numbered dots. In hyper-coded texts these numbers are encoded. The picture could be additionally colored through following of specific instructions.

In conclusion I would say that problem orientated education on the basis of hyper-coded texts needs solving of following problems:

- 1) Is it possible to determine a repeated coding in hyper-coded texts?
- 2) Which are the most often used codes?
- 3) Whose disciplines do these concepts, most often used for decoding of meanings in hyper-coded texts, belong to?
- 4) What kind of connections can be traced between the key concepts from different theories which are used in interdisciplinary interpretation?
- 5) Is there a need for elaboration of new terminology which is able to describe these connections?
- 6) If the vertical structure of the text is multilayered, does an interference of senses, which are transmitted on different levels and on different canals, exist?

Problem orientated education as an interdisciplinary interpretative approach could improve the reflection upon the Bulgarian literature. It will improve reflection on most frequently used codes and this will stimulate discovering of symbolic resource of Bulgarian language. Reflection upon the national literature could create the premises for creation of new type of publicity on the basis of communicative rationality (J. Habermas) which is not widely presented in our native culture.

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Part 3

Education Policy, Reforms and School Leadership

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USING E-LEARNING TO ENHANCE THE LEARNING OF ADDITIONAL LANGUAGES - A PILOT COMPARATIVE STUDY

Abstract

This paper is concerned with a small pilot study to ascertain the use of, and changes in the use of e-learning to promote the learning of foreign and additional languages in a variety of countries in Europe. It was undertaken by individual researchers in an attempt to examine how the drive towards the teaching of new languages, encouraged by the European Commission is progressing. In addition the researchers were anxious to ascertain if in the last two years there had been any noticeable changes in the amount and type of e-learning/technology used in language teaching. Questionnaires were issued to school leaders to discover the type of school being researched, for example numbers and ages of students and numbers of staff. The teaching of languages other than the main language of the country was explored either as additional language teaching of the home language (EAL) or instruction in foreign languages (MFL). In addition specialist teachers were asked about their use of e-learning to aid the teaching of languages and if this use had changed in recent years. At present results from five countries Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Turkey and England have been received with those from Greece and Ireland as yet to be processed. The results show a great variety in the amount of EAL language and new foreign language teaching occurring and a great variance in the use and application of e-learning despite the drive towards e-learning which is so prominently on the political agenda.

Introduction

Prensky (2001: 1) is of the view that

Our students have changed radically. ... Our students today are all native speakers of the digital language of computers, video games and the internet.

The world has become a global village due to the fast and continuing advancement of technology. Hence, use of computers in teaching and learning languages can support and encourage students' learning capacity. Moreover, a computer is a tool which is now familiar to many children in the developed world and is often a child's favourite toy. Prensky (2001: 1) also writes that children spend '10,000 hours' on computers for playing 'games' and that these 'digital natives' can

learn better in this changing world scenario where according to Carnall (1990: 1), 'the only constant is change'.

At Lisbon, in March 2000, education saw the development of Community coordinated strategies for greater convergence of national policies (through the Education and Training 2010 programme) along with employment (through the European Employment Strategy, ESA) and the economy (through the Broad Economic Policy Guidelines, BPEGs). Accordingly, European education and training systems gained a new pivotal role in what concerns the renewed prosperity of the Union. One consideration has been the importance of the learning of foreign languages in European classrooms to encourage the movement of workers within the EU and also to bring the peoples of the EU together with improved understanding of each other. The EU has twenty three official languages and over sixty indigenous regional languages and as the community grows so do the number of languages. In addition massive immigration to the EU has, in recent years, added many more languages particularly from Africa and Asia to the mix of those spoken at home by students in the countries of the Community (European Commission, 2013).

Language learning policy is clear and is detailed in a variety of policy documents which set out the ambition for citizens of the EU to become multi-lingual.

EU language policies aim to protect linguistic diversity and promote knowledge of languages – for reasons of cultural identity and social integration, but also because multilingual citizens are better placed to take advantage of the educational, professional and economic opportunities created by an integrated Europe.

The goal is a Europe where everyone can speak at least **two other languages** in addition to their own mother tongue (European Commission, 2013: no page).

These are worthy aims but not as yet achieved, or likely to be, in a time of budget reductions and the struggle in many countries to help students speak and write at least the national language well. Some countries, such as The Netherlands, are well to the fore with the provision of multi-language schools where students are taught in a variety of languages, whilst others, for example England have to fight a battle to maintain language teaching. The previous Labour government made language learning in England optional from the age of fourteen and put some provision for the first time into state primary schools. However, the result was a massive drop in the numbers of applications to study languages at university and a return to the concept that if one shouts loudly and slowly in English even foreigners would understand (Vasagar, 2012).

During the last fifty years, English speaking countries like Great Britain, Australia, Canada and USA have become 'linguistically diverse' societies due to immigrants' influx from different countries around the world (Leung & Creese, 2010: 1). To provide the statistics about school pupils in this regard, citing National Statistics, 2007, Leung and Creese state that in England for example, 13.5% of the primary school students are considered to be learning English as an additional or second language (EAL/ESL) while according to EdSource (2008 as cited in Leung & Creese, 2010), these figures are 25% in California. However, in England there is a much wider variety of first languages for students in school than in California where

the main first language for EAL students is Spanish. Leung and Creese (2010: 1) also write that education systems have adopted different teaching approaches to teach EAL students. Some provide 'intensive initial EAL tuition' while some provide these learners every possible access to the 'main school curriculum'.

The present Coalition Government in England wants to encourage rapid language understanding among EAL learners so that they can adjust to the main stream class rooms quickly (Summary of Government Policy for EAL learners, 2012). This report further states that in January, 2011 census, the ratio of EAL students in 'state-funded primary schools' in England is '16.8%' and these students have lower achievement levels as compared to the pupils whose first language is English (p. 3). The report also emphasises that EAL students are equally capable, so the learning practices prepared for them should be 'cognitively challenging' just like their peers (p. 3). Many of the learning needs of EAL learners are of course the same as those whose first language is English. However, these students have some different needs as well because they learn English as a second language (NALDIC, 1999 as cited in Milton Keynes Council Report, 2004). (Appendix 2.2) It is further stated in this publication that in the learning perspective, EAL students have two principal missions to achieve in school; understand English and master the components of National Curriculum the achievement of which strongly depends on the 'confidence' of the individual student. Writing about language learning Wharton and Race (1999: 4) also emphasise that language learning depends on 'confidence'. They further argue that in order to build this 'confidence', the learners of second language should be facilitated to get stability over the procedures they put into practice while learning language. The use of computers where students can learn at their own pace and also be stimulated and supported in their learning can allow practice and an increase in confidence, expanding exponentially with the provision of hardware and specifically designed software.

However, not all teachers are as experienced with the use of technology, as are their students who have grown up making use of a variety of devices from mobile phones to computer aided toys. Rudd et al (2004 as cited in Darmody et al, 2010) are of the view that technology is going to play a major role in the future of teaching and learning process because technology is considered to be a chief element in the process of change, so it is essential that teachers receive sufficient training in the area to have confidence in its use. Dwyer (1994, Sandholtz, Ringstaff & Dwyer, 1997 as cited in Rakes et al, 2006: 412) mention 'Apple Classroom of Tomorrow' (ACOT) research project in which, while analysing the data of that particular project, these researchers noticed enhancement in constructivist teaching methods in a technology rich classroom environment. However, Cuban (2001 as cited in Rakes et al, 2006: 412) states that more research is required to find the connection between teachers' use of Information Technology and pedagogical procedures because the teachers in most of the educational institutions are using technology to aid their conventional teaching methodologies not as a way of fostering 'innovative constructive practices'.

Students whose first language is not the native one can be held back by their lack of proficiency and with the rise in the movement of peoples across continents more and more countries are having to cope with the arrival of students who have no knowledge of the country's language yet are expected in assessments such as PISA

to obtain similar results to native speakers. There needs are often the same as those for students learning another language (MFL) and the use of modern technology is increasing for teaching in these areas as it is in other subjects.

The research

This is being carried out by a group of academics and PhD students from across Europe and Turkey as an initial pilot to discover what issues are faced by teachers in aiding foreign language and additional language learning. Researchers are at present from The Netherlands, Poland, England, Portugal, Ireland, Greece and Turkey. In order to define the beginnings of the research a meeting was held for interested parties in London in 2011 and via subsequent exchanges of ideas two data collection instruments were prepared. As this is just an initial stage questionnaires were used which could be completed on-line or face to face using a structured interview technique. This approach was devised in order to overcome the reluctance of many teachers to fill in questionnaires or even to take part in research. In England for example some schools ask that anyone conducting research in a school must have Criminal Record Bureau clearance (despite this being completely unnecessary as at no time were researcher s working with children). The first questionnaire determined the type of school, primary or secondary, numbers of students and teachers, and the ethnic mix of the school. Languages taught and the need for additional language provision. Information about the teachers involved in teaching languages was also discovered, ages, sex and years of experience. The second questionnaire elicited information from language specialists on whether it was national policy to use ICT in the curriculum of the country researched and whether it is integrated across the curriculum or taught as a separate subject. Respondents were asked to say if there were subjects in school where ICT/e-learning was never or seldom used and if it is used widely in the rest of the curriculum. The questionnaire also asked if the percentage use of e-learning had increased in the last two years and what reasons could be given for its use. Respondents were asked to detail the hardware available in the school and who uses it (just the IT specialist, all teachers, students). Whether e-learning had any advantages over other teaching methods was asked and if yes what these were. Teachers were asked if they used commercial or school produced software packages. Finally questions were asked about how ICT was used to link the school with the wider community, e.g. parents, other schools via Comenius etc. Specific to language learning questions were asked what e-learning tools were used to teach languages, if the teacher found these of help to the children and if there had been an increase in use over recent years.

Results

At present the following results have been received. Data from three Dutch, two Polish, three Turkish and three English primary schools has been received along with information from two Portuguese, one Turkish and two English secondary schools. The results are still being processed but the variety of school make up is obvious.

In the Netherlands almost 100% of the pupils in the schools surveyed were white no doubt based in the fact that the research took place in a part of the country

with a very low ethnic mix. Similar results on the lack of an ethnic mix in class makeup were obtained from Poland and Turkey, where in most cases the question about students and home language use was 100%. In England however, results from the London area showed that 10 – 51% of the students had English as a first language with up to eight major languages used in the school by students and many minor languages. In all the schools apart from those in England, English was the main foreign language taught whilst in England it was French and one school Mandarin with French also from year three (age 7/8). Many other languages were offered on a voluntary basis (not in Turkey) such as German, French, Spanish, Mandarin and Arabic, often via clubs in lunch hours or after school. Staff were 99% female and much of the language teaching was done by class teachers. Staff's experience varied across all schools from two to fifteen years.

In the secondary school returns have only been received from two schools in Portugal one in Turkey and two in England so far. Again the ethnic mix is far higher in England than in the other countries with 6% of students having EAL needs with Portugal returning a 100% response for students all having Portuguese as their first language and a nil return from Turkey to this question. Again the main language studied in Portugal and Turkey is English with French being compulsory in one English school with a variety of other languages available as 'a guided choice' including British sign language. Language teaching was mainly undertaken by specialists most of whom were females, particularly as students increased in fluency and in England it is possible to take examinations in a wide variety of languages such as those from the Indian sub-continent and China.

Use of e-learning varied widely in both secondary and primary sectors between schools and between countries. In some countries it is apparent that little ICT provision is present for language teaching in primary schools and few computers are available for students to use in the classroom in Poland. This is less true in the Netherlands and England where staff reported the wide use of technology to support learning, e.g. dictionaries, translation, games, specific commercial packages or material designed in the school. More of these technologies were present in secondary schools but it appears that the approach to language teaching and the use of e-learning is left to the school and even to the individual teacher and their competence in the use of the technology. One English primary school had a clear policy of approach and used commercial e-learning packages (teachers had no time to prepare their own) and the head here stressed the provision of training for staff. One primary school was connected to another one in France and students regularly exchanged emails and written work to improve their fluency in writing in a foreign language. In the secondary schools e-learning was part of the curriculum in most countries but again the amount of spread across the curriculum varied. Physical education was the subject most often reported as not making use of e-learning but also in some cases art which is surprising. Possibly again here is the need for not only the provision of soft and hard ware but the need to train teachers in the pedagogic use of ICT.

Conclusion

These are at present preliminary results but what small findings come from this pilot do not seem to reach the high aspirations of the European Commission in

making Europe an area where everyone uses more than one language. The problems are many, lack of hard and software in appropriate languages, training of teachers, choosing which languages to promote (a particular problem in England), government policies which are always changing, the large numbers of immigrants speaking a very wide variety of world languages and insularity on the part of some citizens who believe that there is only one world language, namely English. The high ideals and ambitions of the Commission mean that countries and schools have a long way to go to achieve success. Wolf (2013) points out that in Brussels there has been a long held view that states would converge including in the area of education. So much did the EU bureaucrats believe this, that they were unhappy when she insisted on using the word divergence in a report on education within the EU. The findings of that report see no real evidence of convergence between the states despite the dictates of Bologna etc. agreements. In a small way this study is beginning to demonstrate similar findings though further data and analysis are needed. Should we therefore say 'vive la difference'?

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VERA SPASENOVIĆ & SLAVICA MAKSIĆ**CHALLENGES OF DEMOCRATISATION:
DEVELOPMENT OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN SERBIA****Abstract**

Educational reforms, as initiated in Serbia in 2001, were based on the concept of quality education for all. This concept was put into practice as an inclusive approach in 2010/11. Inclusive education has been defined as a provision of full support and optimal environment for each student to be taught in the nearest school and in a regular class. In this paper we review the achieved results in providing necessary conditions for a successful implementation of the inclusive education, i.e., school policy, preparation of teachers, building-up their attitudes and system of values, as well as attitudes and system of values of other participants in the educational process. It has been shown that educational institutions, teaching staff and other participants in the educational process are fully aware of the need for an integrated schooling of all children and accept the concept of inclusive education. However, several shortcomings of the current inclusive education have been revealed. They are a consequence of the means it has been implemented, as well as socio-economic conditions that affect the Serbian society and educational sector as its part.

Key words: Serbia, democratisation, education policy, inclusive practice

Introduction

At the end of the 20th century, Serbia found itself in very unfavourable social circumstances that affected education, along with the economic, social, political and cultural sector. After the socio-political changes in 2000, the new authorities proclaimed that improvement of quality of education system was the priority of their politics, since it figured as an efficient means of social development. Accordingly, they initiated a process of thorough restructuring and reorganisation of the education system aimed at overcoming a number of existing problems: unequal accessibility of education to all categories of students, their poor academic achievement, unbalanced quality of teaching staff, poor school infrastructure and working conditions, centralised management of school system and bureaucracy in regulating school work, along with a low level of school autonomy, etc. The main goal of reforms was to use education as means for the provision of an efficient support to economic recovery and development of the country, development of democracy and international integration of the country, while decentralisation, democratisation and improving the quality of education were defined as the main directions of educational reform (Kovač Cerović & Levkov, 2002).

Democracy in education is based on recognition of two basic principles: the principle of equality (fairness, accessibility and acknowledgement of rights for all) and the principle of participation (freedom of expression, choice and active participation in making decisions about/in education practice, along with assuming responsibility) (Kovač Cerović & Levkov, 2002). Modernisation of the society cannot be achieved without democratisation of the society, while the latter cannot be

accomplished without democratisation in education. School is a very powerful instrument in systematic propagating of democratic values and their practicing, especially in the situation of sudden and turbulent social changes, and hence its reform in accordance with different social circumstances becomes more urgent (Maksić & Pavlović, 2011). On the other hand, in every country success in implementation of the education system reform more or less depends on features of the social context in which the reform takes place. Although the intended changes in structure, organisation and functioning of Serbian education system were conceived very ambitiously, the reform process was not implemented continuously and without interruptions during the past ten years. Hence, the achieved effects failed to fulfil both the expectations of experts and the wider public.

Education policy on inclusive education

Starting from 2002, one of priorities of the Serbian educational authorities has been to increase accessibility of education and create conditions for quality education for all students in the country. These goals can be accomplished in the inclusive concept of education. Inclusive education should remove all kinds of barriers and discrimination, such as gender, ethnic origin, religious or socio-economic background, abilities, medical condition or any other personal characteristic of an individual, as well as provide social cohesion. Changes in the education system aimed at increasing inclusion are expected to largely enhance accessibility and quality of education, primarily within the regular system of education, for children from socially unsupportive environments (Roma, poor, rural, displaced), children and adults with developmental impairments and physical disabilities, and children with learning disabilities (Ministarstvo prosvete..., n.d.).

At the end of the first decade of the 21st century, inclusive approach to education was supported by passing of *The Law on the fundamentals of the education system* (Službeni glasnik, 2009). The mechanisms envisaged by the Law comprise: fair enrolment policy, prohibition of discrimination, increased accessibility of education for children with disabilities, as well as children from other vulnerable groups, and changes in funding of institutions that support children's inclusion in the education system. The Law also includes measures that refer to the achievement of standards, development of individual education plan and provision of additional support, school enrolment, running the final exam and appointment of pedagogue assistants. Achievement standards can be adjusted to each individual student in cases where that is necessary due to social deprivation, developmental impairment, physical disability and other reasons. Educational institutions are obliged to eliminate physical and communication obstacles to students' attendance. Schools should also adopt individual education plan for a student who needs it. Children with developmental difficulties can be enrolled into school based on recommendation of the child's doctor working at the community health centre, providing that a relevant commission evaluated the student's needs for additional educational, medical or social support and the parents gave their consent. A developmentally impaired or physically disabled student should take the final exam adapted to his/her motor and sensory abilities, i.e. to conditions dictated by a certain type of disability or in keeping with the individual education plan that has served as the basis for his/her education. Hiring a pedagogue assistant should help teachers, preschool teachers and

associates in extracurricular and curricular activities as a form of additional support to children and students, suitable to their needs.

School year 2010/11 marked the beginning of practical implementation of inclusive education in Serbia. What did educational authorities do to provide conditions for implementation of inclusive education policies? First, they conducted trainings on inclusive education, attended by over 10,000 employees of the education sector. According to the 2012 data, all schools in Serbia received basic training for inclusive education, while 320 schools received advanced training. Additionally, every school received inclusive education materials for teachers. On the whole, 94% of municipalities in Serbia conducted at least one project in this field: 307 regular schools, 56 preschool institutions and 140 schools implemented Roma inclusion programmes, while 49 preschool institutions and 126 schools hired a pedagogue assistant and received equipment necessary for inclusive education. Manuals and guides for enhancement of inclusive practice were published, such as, The guide for advancing inclusive education practice, The manual for school inclusive development, The collected examples of inclusive practice, Teaching strategies for children with developmental impairments and physical disabilities, Professional competences for inclusive education etc. The national network of support to inclusive education comprised 80 experts and practitioners and 14 model schools were formed (Ministarstvo prosvete..., n.d.).

Evaluation of inclusive education

Educational authorities in Serbia intend to conduct evaluation of inclusive education in order to test the effects of introduced changes and develop the system further. At this moment, it is possible to analyse the results of a number of small-scale studies that point to certain difficulties.

First, we will discuss the study on class teachers' needs and capacities for development of inclusive education, conducted by the Serbian Teachers Association and Institute for Evaluation of the Quality of Education, immediately before the introduction of the inclusive model (Procena kapaciteta i potreba učitelja za razvoj inkluzivnog obrazovanja, 2010). The findings indicate that somewhat more than one half of class teachers held a positive attitude towards inclusive education, while one quarter was against such a practice. Only a small percent of respondents (12.8%) perceived their working space as sufficiently adapted for quality participation of students with developmental impairments/physical disabilities, and less than one fifth thought they had adequate work equipment at their disposal. Additionally, a majority of class teachers were not satisfied by the current forms and kinds of support to development of inclusive education, and assessed as inadequate their preparation for working in inclusive schools. Only one-fifth of respondents said that teachers were trained to provide adequate support in learning and participation of students with developmental impairments/physical disabilities. This is in accordance with the finding that only 16.8% of respondents opined that they had received adequate knowledge for quality work with students with disabilities. Almost one half of teachers did not attend any in-service training in the field of inclusive education. On the other hand, it is an encouraging finding that teachers were willing to attend inclusion trainings and agreed that system-level support was necessary.

Another study conducted at the same time, but involving both school and kindergarten teachers, pointed to similar difficulties in implementation of inclusive education in educational institutions (Gašić Pavišić & Gutvajn, 2011). The majority of kindergarten teachers (82%) and class teachers (74%) assessed they were not sufficiently prepared for working with children with disabilities. One quarter of kindergarten teachers who participated in the study and more than one third of class teachers stated that they had one, two or three children with disabilities in their group/class. Groups with these children consisted of up to thirty children, the same as school classes, and their disabilities ranged from slight speech impediments to attention disorders and aggressiveness to intellectual deficits, cerebral palsy, autism and epilepsy. There were no differences in self-assessment of preparation for working with children in inclusive conditions between those kindergarten and class teachers who had received some kind of training and those who had not. According to respondents' opinion, the biggest obstacles to successful implementation of inclusion were lack of expertise and preparation of kindergarten/class teachers (mentioned by one-half of kindergarten teachers and one-third of class teachers); too many children in group/class; inadequate work conditions – lack of teaching aids, inadequate space, lack of staff, too extensive curriculum, lack of literature; lack of support from colleagues, headmaster, local community, parents; lack of teamwork; poor cooperation with parents, unrealistic parental expectations.

Results of another study among kindergarten teachers confirmed that they generally held a positive attitude towards inclusion of children with developmental difficulties in regular preschool groups, but felt they lacked professional skills for working with them (Gutvajn & Lalić-Vučetić, 2010). In the kindergarten teachers' opinion, advantages of inclusion lay in the domain of better chances for progress of mentally impaired children through participation in some activities together with other children, but they were worried that presence of a disabled child might endanger safety of other children (Nikolić & Mitrović, 2010).

Teachers dominantly perceived themselves as inadequately professionally prepared for working with children with disabilities, emphasising that it should be the responsibility of special educators (Đerić & Pavlović, 2011). Primary school teachers thought that individual education plan was largely the essence of inclusion (Lazić, 2011). Teacher training on inclusion organised by the Ministry of Education was assessed by teachers as successful in the theoretical part, but as inadequate in preparation for solving practical issues. Teachers believed that it was possible to include children with milder impairments in regular school, and stated they were ready to work with this category of students (Bogner, Jablan & Golubović, 2011).

Positive teachers' attitudes towards joint education of children with and without disabilities have also been confirmed by the study conducted among teachers and students, with the exception that more than one-half of respondents stated that selective approach was necessary, depending on the impairment type and degree (Đević, 2010). Teachers expressed their concerns about academic achievement of a class that involved students with disabilities. The same study has shown that students were ready to accept disabled children. More positive attitudes, both among teachers and students, were expressed by those whose schools were involved in inclusive education programmes. For example, increasing students' level of

information about visually impaired children resulted in reduction of negative attitudes towards them (Jablan & Hanak, 2010).

It has also been shown that initial teacher education did not significantly contribute to the development of competences and teacher preparation for inclusive education (Macura-Milovanović, Gera & Kovačević, 2011). Analysis of teacher education curricula showed that in the majority of cases there was only one course relevant for inclusive education, while the dominant approach was the perspective of special education, i.e. medicine, without the cross-curricular approach. The main obstacles to preparation for inclusive education mentioned by teachers were inadequate curricula, non-functional professional practice and negative attitudes of university teachers towards inclusive education.

A study conducted among parents, some of them belonging to minority and/or marginalised groups, pointed to links between school initiative, parent-teacher relationship and parents' readiness to be involved in various aspects of school life. Building trust and partner relations with teachers, cooperation between parents and constant focus of all involved parties on child's best interests were perceived as possibilities for higher parental involvement in school life and work (Vranješević, 2011). Another study among parents whose children had developmental difficulties showed that higher parental readiness for partnership with school was a result of informing parents about their rights and roles in children's education and inclusive education, as well as appreciation of their needs (Velišek-Braško, 2011).

Conclusion

Based on previous discussion, it can be concluded that at the level of educational policy Serbia has embraced a modern and human inclusive approach to education. However, experience from practice of numerous educational institutions points to many problems in the implementation of inclusive practice. Research studies have shown that both kindergarten and class teachers do not feel competent enough for inclusive education, that they are not satisfied with the existing types and forms of support provided for the development of inclusive education, as well as that there are no physical conditions for entry, movement and stay in the building and classroom for children with disabilities. Another conclusion is that inclusive approach was introduced into Serbian kindergartens and schools without the provision of necessary prerequisites for its success. Still, it is encouraging that teachers are aware of the needs of all children for integrated schooling and they accept the idea of inclusive education. Nevertheless, there is still much to be done in strengthening the capacities of teachers and schools in developing the inclusive practice.

Further endeavours in providing appropriate conditions for inclusive education should take place at multiple levels, timely and systematically. First and foremost, it is urgent to implement changes in the initial teacher education, as well as in the field of their professional development. The scope of teachers involved in trainings was not sufficient, and there is also a particular set of competences that cannot be acquired through one-time professional training while working. Additionally, it is necessary to persevere in providing various kinds of help and support to teachers, through involving paraprofessionals in work, cooperation with special pedagogues within school team, organising special schools as resource centres, devising

trainings in keeping with teachers' professed needs, encouraging horizontal learning etc. It is also necessary to adapt spatial and technical conditions to the needs of all children to a much larger extent than it has been done so far. However, removal of physical barriers, provision of assistant technology, hiring of pedagogical assistants, etc. demands sufficient funding. Unless these obstacles are overcome, envisaged legal solutions that guarantee the right to equal access to education and encouragement of development of all children have no chance to be accomplished.

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SLAVICA MAKSIĆ & ZORAN PAVLOVIĆ**NURTURING CHILD IMAGINATION IN THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD:
PERSPECTIVES FROM DIFFERENT NATIONS****Abstract**

Imagination and creativity in today's world are becoming increasingly relevant in the light of the fact that main human work products are innovations, knowledge, ideas and creative solutions. Nurturing child imagination is the most promising way of building up a creative personality and contributing to individual creative production in the future. This paper presents the results of evaluation of child imagination in Serbia and other European countries that participated in the World Values Survey. Child imagination is less valued than some other educational goals. The analysis of differences in the support of child imagination between nations pointed out to relevance of some cultural factors, while age and socioeconomic status were the most significant predictors of imagination preference on the individual level. The data show that different nations value imagination differently, which implies that chances for development of youth creative potentials depend on social setting in which children grow up.

Key words: imagination, educational goals, national education system, World Values Survey

Introduction

Imagination and creativity in today's world are becoming increasingly relevant in the light of the fact that main human work products are innovations, knowledge, ideas and creative solutions. The European Union has recognised this – 2009 was the year of creativity and innovations in Europe, with special emphasis on the role of education system in the development of creativity and innovation in a lifelong learning perspective (European Union, 2008). Imagination is considered as creation of something new – a capacity to combine, process, and create new representations and new behaviour (Vigotski, 2005). Educational researchers mentioned imagination as one of the aspects of creativity in their personal theories of creativity, and defined creativity during preschool years primarily through curiosity and imagination (Maksić & Pavlović, 2011). Nurturing child imagination is the most promising way of building up a creative personality and contributing to individual creative production in the future.

Encouragement of child imagination is support for the development of all capacities of an individual, but nations are also supposed to benefit. All everyday objects are in some sense externalised imagination – existing not only for its creator but for other people as well. Imaginative scientists, engineers, economists are the leading force of artistic, scientific and technical development and progress. Some human-capital theorists suggest that peoples' competences, mediated by technological progress, are the deciding factor in nation's wealth. Rindermann and Thompson (2011) argue that creative, high-ability classes are responsible for economic growth, stable democratic development, and positively valued political

aspects (e.g. government effectiveness). Florida (2002) speaks of a creative class as a main driving force of the post-industrial society's economy.

In contemporary societies, public opinion studies are one way of determining the current values and attitudes of citizens towards important social issues. Public opinion studies on child imagination can provide data on how much the given environment values imagination, while the attitude of various social groups towards the development of child imagination determines the level of its support in a certain environment. The subject of our paper is valuing of the development of child imagination, bearing in mind the importance of public opinion in defining the status of child imagination as an educational goal in individual nations/countries and among the members of different interests groups. This paper is thus an attempt to answer the following questions: (1) can it be expected that different European nations/countries will express a universal value orientation with respect to preferring development of child imagination over other family educational goals, and (2) which characteristics of an individual are important for his/her attitude towards child imagination in Serbia.

Data analysis

The most comprehensive and systematic data on valuing child imagination around the world are available from the World Values Survey (WVS)¹, a series of cross-cultural research conducted regularly in the last three decades. During the period from 1981 to 2008, 87 countries or geo-political entities from six continents and nearly 256.000 respondents participated in five waves of the survey. The first wave was conducted in the period from 1981 to 1984, the second from 1989 to 1993, the third from 1994 to 1999, the fourth from 1999 to 2001 and the fifth wave started in 2005 and ended in 2008. Serbia participated in the third (1996), fourth (2001) and fifth wave (2006). Surveys were conducted on representative national samples with standardised, face-to-face interviews. Among other things, respondents were asked to choose up to five most important qualities from the list of ten qualities that children should be encouraged to learn at home. The list contained the following qualities: independence, hard work, feeling of responsibility, imagination, tolerance, thrift/saving money and things, determination, religious faith, unselfishness and obedience.

This paper will present the results of some recent studies based on the data collected in WVS pertaining to valuing of child imagination. One study (Maksić & Pavlović, 2010) used data collected in the fifth wave (2005–2008) of WVS, with the following nineteen European countries as participants: Andorra, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Finland, France, Great Britain, Italy, Moldavia, Holland, Norway, Poland, Romania, Russia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Serbia, and Ukraine. The analysis showed that among the citizens of these European countries in general imagination was at the bottom of the list of the preferred qualities – it was ranked tenth, all other offered qualities being more valued. The support for imagination was lowest in Russia (14%), Italy (15%) and Bulgaria (17%), while the citizens of Norway (55%) and Sweden (57%) valued child imagination most. In these two countries, child imagination was placed in the upper half (ranked fourth) of the preferred child

¹ www.worldvaluessurvey.com

qualities. On the average, 22% of citizens in these nineteen countries said that imagination was important; an equal number of Serbian citizens agreed with that (22%). Other previous studies also showed that imagination was usually viewed as one of the least important child qualities (Joksimović, Maksić & Pavlović, 2007; Maksić & Pavlović, 2008; Maksić & Pavlović, 2009a). Some other qualities, such as responsibility and tolerance (Joksimovic, Maksic & Pavlovic, 2007), were viewed as far more important and urgent; probably because parents and education system saw themselves as more responsible for and more obliged to encourage these.

The same study also analysed the influence of certain macro-level characteristics on the European nation's level of support for imagination, as well as some of its individual correlates. The level of socioeconomic development (as indicated by GDP *per capita*), whether the country had been under communist rule after the World War II or not, dominant religious denomination (Catholicism, Orthodoxy, Protestantism) and the aggregate level of the acceptance of postmaterialist values were included as predictors in the regression model. Although zero-order correlations between the nation's level of support for imagination and all of the afore-mentioned variables were highly significant ($p < .001$), dominant religious denomination was the most important and only significant predictor ($\beta = .503$, $p < 0.05$) in the model ($F = 5.34$, $df = 4$, $p < 0.01$, adj. $R^2 = .62$). Imagination was most highly valued in protestant countries (e.g. Sweden, Norway, Great Britain, Finland). Similar findings can be found elsewhere (Maksić & Pavlović, 2009b).

Some individual correlates of imagination preference were also analysed, although only on the Serbian subsample, using data from the fifth wave of WVS. Gender, age, educational level, personal religiosity, marital status, number of children, and family income were included as predictors in the regression model. The model was significant ($F = 10.56$, $df = 4$, $p < 0.01$, Adj. $R^2 = .035$) and respondent's age ($\beta = -.081$, $p < 0.05$) and family income² ($\beta = .134$, $p < 0.01$) proved to be the most significant predictors of individual support for imagination. Younger and more affluent individuals were more inclined to view imagination as important. Some other studies based on different applied methodology have also found evidence of the relevance of age and socioeconomic status for valuing child imagination (Maksić & Pavlović, 2008; Pavlović & Maksić, 2009a).

The current political, social and economic situation can, at least partially, explain the fact that younger and more affluent citizens of Serbia are more inclined to encourage child imagination. Serbia is an ex-communist country in a prolonged transitional period, with the constant devaluation of collective goals and common good, a decline in the standard of living and impoverishment of the educational sector. Unsuccessful privatisation caused polarisation within society. A small minority of citizens gained enough wealth that enabled them to shift from emphasis on survival and material values. On the other hand, the majority of citizens are constantly facing the risks of losing job and are obliged to work low-paid and under-qualified jobs. One consequence of such circumstances is greater emphasis on

² The respondent was asked to estimate the average monthly income of his/her household, bearing in mind all of the household members and all sources of income (salaries, rents, pensions etc.). The income level was operationalised as a ten-point scale, from the lowest (1) to highest (10) income range.

fulfilment of material than non-material needs. It can be argued that similar circumstances in other ex-communist European countries had similar effects on value priorities.

Discussion

Citizens of some European countries obviously value child imagination more explicitly than others and Protestantism has had a very important role in it. Protestant European countries are some of the most developed and wealthiest countries in the world. Those are post-industrial societies whose economies heavily depend on the creative class. Nurturing imagination and creativity in such social setting is probably the main productive force and the cornerstone of maintenance of a high level of development. Furthermore, Western countries are precisely those societies where the major value shift had occurred in the past several decades, which some scholars have described as “humanistic transformation of modernisation” (Inglehart & Welzel, 2005: 47). Welfare state has removed material, cognitive and social obstacles for the sense of and expression of individual autonomy. As a result, there are rising levels of emancipatory and self-expression values in Western countries.

Based on the data from WVS, Inglehart (Inglehart & Baker, 2000) identified two orthogonal value dimensions of cross-cultural variation: (1) traditional versus secular/rational values and (2) survival versus self-expression values. Traditional values, among other things, include attitudes that children should be encouraged to learn obedience and respect for elders. Secular/rational values are related to greater emphasis on responsibility and thrift as important child qualities. The main component of the second value dimension is (post)materialist orientation – valuing economic and physical security versus valuing self-expression and the quality of life. As one moves from survival to self-expression pole there is a change from preference of hard work towards valuing of child imagination as an important child quality.

All of the protestant European countries in the analysis above (Finland, Norway, Sweden, Holland and Great Britain) are positioned in the secular/self-expression quadrant of the Inglehart’s global cultural map (Inglehart & Baker, 2000). Higher support for imagination in these countries can be understood as a manifestation of valuing creativity as a channel of self-expression and pursuing one’s autonomy. Value shift brings changes in preferred educational styles, encouraging child’s imagination being one of them.

Certain global trends (interdependence of world economies, transnational mobility of workers etc.), as well as some general trends in the job sphere (lifelong learning, between-jobs mobility etc.) and their influence on all spheres of social life, make creativity equally important for the developing (and non-protestant) societies. Joining the flows of modern, knowledge-based economy is practically the only path to welfare in today’s globalised world. It is almost unthinkable to accomplish this without innovation, flexibility and creativity. However, the countries that value child imagination to the least extent are poor, mostly unstable or only formal, and not effective democracies – exactly those who could benefit the most from it. In a world which is more and more dominated by cognitive capitalism (Rindermann & Thompson, 2011) and creative economies (Howkins, 2001), where people make

money out of ideas, those who cannot lead, or at least follow, are bound to be “cognitively enslaved” or “cognitively colonised”. The nations who cannot keep pace are left behind in the circle of poverty and stagnation, importing technologies and creative products instead of creating and exporting them.

This could imply that certain types of societies lack the structural prerequisites for the support of imagination to become widespread and for its workforce and economy to become globally competitive. Creativity is, so to speak, not enough – it is only one among many factors of society’s progress. Florida (2003) speaks of 3T’s of economic development: talent, tolerance and technology. Although his findings were somewhat criticised (see, for example, Montgomery, 2005), the idea that creativity and welfare are closely interconnected is rarely called into question. The underlying and unanswered question of the causal relationship – whether more developed societies value imagination more because they are more affluent or they are more affluent because they value imagination more – is not as important as its implication: the two are mutually reinforcing, helping the rich to remain rich and the poor to remain poor.

Conclusion

Analysis of data on valuing child imagination collected in the World Values Survey showed that the wealthiest European societies and social groups tend to value imagination more strongly. This finding is also supported by the results of previous studies. Such a conclusion is not without limitations: in spite of the same applied methodology and instrument, the questions of respondent’s motivation, comparability of similar findings from different social context etc. still remain. The chances for development of one’s creative potentials largely depend on the wider social context. Physical, social and cultural environment “can serve to spark creativity or to squelch it” (Lubart, 1990: 39). It takes a lot of effort to nurture it, but it is always worthwhile. Supporting the imaginative and innovative can only be beneficial, both to those who are creative and to the wider community. When resources are scarce, it seems that spending them on creativity is a high price to pay. However, the price for not supporting it is actually much higher. It is up to relevant social agents to acknowledge the need for the support of imagination and creativity and to find the most appropriate mechanisms to encourage them through various forms of family, formal and informal education in the lifelong learning perspective of every citizen. Only then the workforce and its products would be globally competitive in the contemporary world.

Several mechanisms are available for nurturing child imagination in an unsupportive social context: national strategies and programs for the gifted and talented, their more prominent social and media promotion, appeals to elites, governmental officials and institutions etc. One of the most salient channels of personal social promotion and related improvement of socioeconomic status (which, at least in Serbia, has effects on the encouragement of imagination) is education. Furthermore, some studies have shown that the more educated strata in population value imagination more (Joksimović, Maksić & Pavlović, 2007), which implies that imagination and creativity can be encouraged indirectly – by expansion of education and increasing its availability. This bears special relevance for those segments of

population who think that child's imagination is rather a waste of time than human capital or a valuable resource.

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THE ABUSIVE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL: A SOUTH AFRICAN CASE STUDY

Abstract

Since the 1990s there has been increased public interest, debate and research on workplace bullying. Little research has, however, been done on the abuse of educators or on the bullies per se. The aim of this paper is to expand the body of knowledge on workplace bullying by shedding light on the character of a bullying school principal. In 2008 I conducted in-depth interviews with educators who were the victims of bullying. A content analysis of the verbatim responses of three educators who worked at the same school revealed that their bully was an envious, destructive narcissistic, evil and unsupportive school principal, who relentlessly victimised them for nearly two decades.

Introduction

Initial studies on workplace bullying began in Sweden in the 1990s under the guidance of Leymann. Since then, workplace bullying has generated increased public interest, debate and research (Cemalogly, 2007; Blasé & Blasé, 2004). Researchers (Harvey, Buckley, Teames, Zinko, Brouer & Ferris, 2007; Rayner, Hoel & Cooper, 2002) have identified managers as foremost among the perpetrators of workplace bullying. Workplace bullying is a serious problem in the teaching sector (Peyton, 2009; Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Rayner, Hoel & Cooper, 2002). Little research has, however, been done on the abuse of educators (Blasé & Blasé, 2004) or on the bullies per se (Rayner et al., 2002). The aim of this study is thus to address the aforementioned gaps in the body of knowledge on workplace bullying by answering the following question: Who is the bullying school principal?

What is workplace bullying?

There is no clear consensus on what constitutes workplace bullying. Definitions on workplace bullying usually share the following elements: the negative effect of the bullying on the victim; the persistency of the bullying behaviour; and the power disparity between the victim and the bully/bullies (Harvey et al., 2007; Einarsen, 1999). Hadikin and O'Driscoll (2002) find that the commonest forms of workplace bullying behaviour to be intimidation, the undervaluing of skills and humiliation. Other forms include the belittling of work, undervaluing effort, questioning of professional competence, threats, blocking development/promotion, overruling decisions, moving goal posts, refusing reasonable requests, social isolation or silent treatment, rumours, attacking the victim's private life or attitudes, excessive criticism or the monitoring of work, withholding information or depriving of responsibility and verbal aggression (Peyton, 2009; Harvey et al., 2007; Hadikin & O'Driscoll, 2002). Acts of physical violence, such as hitting, slapping and shoving tend to be rare in workplace bullying (Einarsen, 1999).

In her study on the bullying behaviour of school principals, De Wet (2010) identified the following forms of principal-on-educator bullying: Principals ignore educators' thoughts, needs, feelings and accomplishments. Abusive principals

frequently fail to support educators in confrontations with problematic learners, colleagues, learning facilitators, parents or members of the community. Bullying principals verbally abuse and ridicule educators in private and/or in front of colleagues. Educators are subjected to unwarranted and unfair criticism. Principals set their victims up to fail by withholding information or 'creating situations' in the hope that their victims will fail and thus appear incompetent. Educators perceive their bullying principals as being devoid of any empathy towards them. Educators are subjected to unwarranted written reprimands. Principals force educators out of their jobs, reassign them and/or threaten them with instant dismissal

Blasé and Blasé's (2004) comprehensive study on bullying school principals discuss three levels of principal-on-educator bullying:

- *Level 1: Indirect and moderately aggressive behaviour.* Indirect forms of bullying include discounting educators' thoughts, needs and feelings; isolating and abandoning educators; withholding resources and denying opportunities, and credit to educators; favouring 'select' educators; and offensive personal conduct.
- *Level 2: Direct and escalating aggression.* Level 2 behaviour include spying, sabotaging, stealing, destroying educators' instructional material, making unreasonable work demands; and unfair and harsh private and public criticism of educators' work and abilities.
- *Level 3: Direct and severe aggression.* Most level 3 forms of principal mistreatment can be associated with various forms of deception including lying, explosive behaviour, threats, unwarranted reprimands, unfair evaluations, forcing educators out of their jobs' preventing educators from leaving/advancing, sexual harassment and racism.

Research findings that there is an increase in bullying behaviour in facilities that are restructuring, downsizing, where job security is low and where there is internal competition in the facility (Yildirm & Yildirm, 2007) is *mutatis mutandis* applicable on the post-Apartheid education scene, especially for schools serving only white learners during the Apartheid era in South Africa. Schools serving only white learners during the Apartheid era had to downsize and thousands of white educators were retrenched. There were furthermore large cuts in government grants to schools in more affluent areas.¹ The predominantly autocratic management style of school principals furthermore enhances the likelihood of principal-on-educator bullying (Blasé & Blasé, 2004).

Empirical investigation

The topic discussed in this paper is very sensitive. I therefore employed snowball sampling (Patton, 2002) requiring educators and colleagues to recommend educators whom they believe to have experienced workplace bullying. I contacted the educators who expressed an interest in participation beforehand, explained the study, provided them with a tentative interview schedule and addressed their concerns. As expected, educators were afraid of possible disclosure. However,

¹ This paper focuses on the experiences of three educators who taught at Secondary School Edumela (pseudonym). This school is located in an affluent area, and served only white learners during the Apartheid era.

several safeguards seemed to alleviate most of the participants' possible fears and promoted trust. I explained to the educators the ethical principles that guided the study; namely, the confidentiality of the findings and the protection of their identities (Maree & Van der Westhuizen, 2007). Three educators who were referred to me by colleagues as possible interviewees were not willing to grant me interviews. All of them cited fear of being identified and the consequent intimidation and/or victimisation as reasons for their refusal. Despite the sensitivity of the topic, mutual trust and rapport were established between the interviewees and me (Patton, 2002). They spoke freely and in detail about their abusive experiences. This may, according to Patton (2002) firstly be attributed to the interviewer's sincere respect, empathy and interest in the people being interviewed. I asked meaningful questions and listened attentively to their answers. Secondly, the study held special significance for educators who participated. As painful as some of the interviews were, the participants believed that that problem of workplace bullying should be made public. The interviews were conducted in the safety of the participants' homes, or if they preferred, in the home of a friend. This added to their sense of comfort, security and trust. Interviews were conducted until definite categories and themes became evident and the information became saturated. In total, 10 educators participated in the study over a 6-month period during 2008. This paper will focus on the narratives of two of the male (David and Harold) and one of the female (Martha) interviewees. All three of them were teaching at the school, namely Secondary School Edumela (pseudonyms).

Data collection was by means of in-depth personal interviews. The interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim. Reflective field notes were taken for the sake of triangulation (cf. Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2011; Patton, 2002). The following questions guided the interviews:

- What is your experience of workplace bullying?
- What do you think are the reasons for the bullying?
- What is the impact of workplace bullying on your professional and/or private life?

Henning et al.'s (2011) guidelines for qualitative content analysis were used to reduce, condense and group the content of the participants' answers to the open questions. The identification of emergent themes allowed the information to be analysed and related to the literature.

Findings and discussion

Introduction

When Mr Somerset was appointed as the deputy principal at the Secondary School Edumela during the 1990s, David and Harold did not, according to the latter, "really take any notice of him". According to Harold, Somerset "always held it against us and treated us unnecessarily badly". Relations between David, Harold and Somerset went into a downward spiral after Somerset's appointment as principal. Martha's life as an educator also changed after the appointment of Somerset. According to her, relations between them were tense right from the start: "I was always blamed for everything that went wrong. He never liked me". The situation became worse when she returned from a year's study leave. Since then, he has done

everything in his power to humiliate her, to bring her into discredit with the parents and colleagues and to break her spirit.

The ensuing characterisation of the bullying principal is based on information extracted from my interviews with David, Harold and Martha. The aim of the paper is not to give an objective factually correct portrayal of the management style of the principal, but to look at him through the eyes of his victims.

Characteristics of the bullying principal

An analysis of the verbatim responses of the three participants revealed that their bully was an envious, destructive, narcissistic, evil and unsupportive school principal who relentlessly victimised them. In the discussion of the findings of my study I will link the results with the work of other researchers.

Envy

Several researchers (Peyton, 2009; Cemalogly, 2007; Kirsten, Viljoen & Rossouw, 2005; Einarsen, 1999) share the view that abusers often feel threatened. They bully those they feel may have 'an edge' over them. Personal strength and accomplishments may thus provoke bullies. Harvey et al.'s (2007) view, that the bully will publicly devalue what he/she envies, while privately coveting the attribute, is aptly illustrated in the following quotation:

My pupils ... received national and provincial awards. ...he has not accomplished anything of that magnitude ... I don't think he can handle it ... I think he is glad when my children don't perform well, then nobody will make a fuss of my work (Martha).

The prestige that Martha enjoyed amongst her colleagues was a thorn in Somerset's side. For example, she learned that he had tampered with the results of the School Governing Body's (SGB) election in which she stood as an educator representative. He also endeavoured to damage her image amongst the parents and children. For instance, the extramural programme timetables were regularly changed to the detriment of the activities in which she was involved.

Somerset's tactic to repeatedly assign learning areas to her of which she had little or no knowledge, in the hope that she would fail, is seen by Peyton (2009) as a strategy bullies use to victimise those whom they envy out of their job. As part of her survival strategy Martha thoroughly familiarised herself with the new educational approach (Outcomes Based Education). Her hard work did not meet with his approval. On the contrary: "He criticised my way of marking" and "I had to appear on the carpet in order to explain why I had re-assessed my pupils. But this is part of the OBE assessment policy." Martha's view that Somerset picked on her is not uncommon behaviour for workplace bullies. Peyton (2009, p. 42) writes, for example, that bullies have "their special victims".

Destructive narcissism

Harvey et al.'s (2007) and Kirsten et al.'s (2005) findings that the workplace bully may suffer from destructive narcissism, is to a large extent, confirmed by this study. The subsequent discussion will highlight the principal's inflated sense of self-importance, arrogance, preoccupation with power and entitlement; his inability to handle criticism and a lack of concern for and a devaluation of others.

Research findings (e.g., Peyton, 2009; Harvey et al., 2007; Kirsten et al., 2005; Blasé & Blasé, 2002) that the workplace bully is unwilling to endure any opposition

or criticism, is extremely authoritarian showing a preoccupation with power, are confirmed by this study. The three educators mentioned for example, that those who dare to speak out against Somerset must bear the brunt of his anger (“We heard him shouting at her. ... she must do as ordered or hand in her resignation” and “I cannot confront him. He tells you to your face that you are lying, while he is the one who is lying”). David furthermore described how Somerset threatened him with dismissal. Sometimes Somerset perceived a simple request as criticism. Martha invited him (in front of colleagues) to attend the year-end prize-giving function for the extramural activity for which she was responsible. When he turned down her invitation she said: “Sir, the children would really appreciate your presence and support”. The next day she was severely reproached and threatened with an official reprimand for “humiliating him in public”. Peyton (2009) notes that the self-righteous bully cannot accept that they can possibly be in the wrong. Bullies are furthermore able to, as is illustrated by Somerset’s confrontation with Martha about her alleged public humiliation of him, misrepresent facts and twist what people say (Peyton, 2009).

The three educators suggested that staff members, who did not show absolute loyalty towards the principal, were bullied. David gave the following rationalisation for his bullying:

When he was appointed as deputy head ... he was not welcomed with open arms ...and it seems as if he is still holding it against us.

Martha, who described in detail how Somerset tried to get rid of her and four of her colleagues, said that the bullying principal believed that their loyalty lay with the previous principal:

He wanted to fire [us]. We all worked under Mr. M. He started to target and terrorise each one of us.

Evil

Martha’s suggestion that her bully is dishonest (he rigged the results of the SGB election), unfair (e.g. the promotion of a ‘favoured’ educator as HOD) and manipulative (“if we are not willing to do as we are told, we must look for other jobs”) is in line with findings by Peyton (2009) and Harvey et al. (2007); namely, that bullies act without remorse to the detriment of their victims. The participants furthermore used words and phrases such as the following to describe their bully: “untouchable”; “a hard man” and “doesn’t give a damn for other people”. David said Somerset once compared a “good principal” with high quality sausage (*boerewors*). This principal implied that a successful/good educational leader should, among other things, demonstrate the characteristics of a pig. According to David, the principal’s deeds often exemplified his motto. David’s depiction of his principal as a person devoid of empathy and compassion links with Peyton’s (2009) portrayal of the bully as a person who picks on the vulnerable. According to Peyton (2009, p. 41), bullies take great pleasure in seeing their “victims suffer from being afraid of them”. David’s health gradually deteriorated and he was diagnosed with depression. The principal’s unsympathetic attitude during his illness remains with David:

He told me that if I were not yet ready at the beginning of the term and if I could not yet teach fulltime I ... would not be the first person to resign on account of depression, but I had to start thinking of leaving teaching. He said that if I could not cope, I had to go. ... He could have given me a fair chance to get onto my feet again.

The next term, David resumed his duties at the school, despite the fact that he was still officially on sick leave. After this incident, the relations between David and Somerset deteriorated further and he was regularly “on the carpet” for apparent trivialities. He was, for example, belittled for not comprehending a complex rubric. Peyton (2009, p. 39) writes that workplace bullies “neither know nor care about the impact of their behaviour on others”. According to Peyton (2009) it is not uncommon for abusive managers to manage their staff by humiliation. Harvey et al. (2007, p. 122) note that the bullies seem to ‘enjoy’ the fear and pain they inflict on others.

Unsupportive leader

All three participants found Somerset unsupportive. Both David and Harold acknowledged during the interviews that they were struggling disciplining misbehaving learners. Their requests for support were turned down and even mocked by Somerset. Both of them were later on formally reprimanded for using “improper” disciplinary strategies. The use of formal structures to assert power over the victim is not an uncommon occurrence in workplace bullying (Peyton, 2009). David, furthermore, experienced Somerset’s negative conduct during his illness and David’s inability to comprehend a rubric, as a lack of support. Martha believed that Somerset’s unwillingness to utilise her in her field of expertise and adhere to her request that he should attend the extracurricular activities that she is responsible for, as a lack of support. Peyton (2009, p. 42) is of the opinion that bullies deliberately withhold support so that he/she can later on accuse the victim of “getting it wrong”.

Bullies are persistent and focused individuals

A key characteristic of bullying is that the negative behaviour is persistent (Harvey et al., 2007; Hadikin & O’Driscoll, 2002; Einarsen, 1999). All three participants endured Somerset’s relentless bullying since his appointment as principal during the 1990s. When Martha informed her deputy principal about her principal’s bullying, his answer was: “You will never change that man”. She also had the following to say about her tormentor:

If he doesn’t like you ... he’ll target you ... he is persistent; he goes on and on and on ... it doesn’t matter how hard you try ... he’ll continue prying until he finds fault.

Somerset is portrayed as a focused, task orientated individual who was fully aware of what he was doing (Martha described in detail how her bully systematically tried to get rid of her for nearly two decades by, amongst other things, discontinuing her area of specialisation, issuing her with official reprimands for minor wrongdoings and humiliating her in public).

At the conclusion of each interview I asked the interviewees whether or not they had confronted their tormentor. Their answers to this question are indicative of the negative effect of bullying on victims. All three the participants decided not to confront Somerset. Martha said for example “No, I can’t confront him ... he will tell me to my face that I’m lying ... he is that type of person”. David, who was forced to resume his teaching responsibilities whilst he was still on sick leave, said: “my doctor was very angry; I could possibly have taken him (Somerset) to the labour court, but I’m not that type of guy”. The South African Council of Educators (2002),

as well as the leading teachers' trade unions in South Africa (cf. Heystek, 2001), set out to create a work environment where dignity and respect are afforded to all educators. The SACE and the teachers' trade unions also undertake to tackle incidents that violate educators' rights speedily and effectively. However, the three interviewees decided not to confront their tormentor or turn to official organs to protect them against their bullying principal. It therefore seems as if a "spiral of silence" (Harvey et al., 2007, p. 125) overwhelmed the school. The victims were too afraid to speak out or to ask for help.

Despite the severity of the bullying the three interviewees had to suffer, none of them considered leaving the teaching profession. David and Harold mentioned that they had only two or three years before they retired. Martha, who had been teaching at the same school for 30 years, said that she had unsuccessfully applied for teaching position at other schools and for a position as learning facilitator.

Two years after my interview with David, he retired at the age of 60. The once beloved, dedicated educator concedes that he is apathetic towards the school where he had worked for his entire professional career. Martha has, at long last, been promoted to the position of HOD. Harold plans to retire when he turns 65 during 2013. Somerset will retire in December 2012.

Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to shed light on the character of a bullying school principal. A content analysis of the verbatim responses of three educators who worked at the same school revealed that their bully was an envious, destructive, narcissistic, evil and unsupportive school principal who relentlessly victimised them. This study has given me insight into the character of the bully from the perspective of the victims. This is not uncommon in workplace bullying research. Rayner et al. (2002) correctly recommend that researchers should cast their net wider to include information from the bully's point of view. This case study gave a single description of an individual as seen through the eyes of three of his members of staff. The information should therefore not be used to "profile" a school principal who bullies (some of) his members of staff.

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YING WANG & NICHOLAS SUN-KEUNG PANG**THINKING STYLES OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN BEIJING, CHINA****Abstract**

Previous studies on teachers' thinking have usually related to teaching and learning, and concentrated on classroom-level outcomes. In this study, an organizational and administrative perspective was adopted in examining teachers' thinking style. Data collected were from a sample of 268 in-service teachers from 6 primary schools in Beijing, China. An instrument, the Thinking Styles Questionnaire for Teachers (TSQ-T), was developed to assess the teachers' thinking styles. The results of the study showed that (a) the TSQ-T is a reliable and valid inventory for assessing the thinking styles of primary school teachers in Beijing, with the subscales' Cronbach's alphas ranged from .60 to .84; (b) the dominant thinking styles among the teachers were cooperative, hierarchical, and analytical; and (c) there were significant differences in teachers' thinking styles in terms of gender, teaching experience, rank, discipline background, and executive position. Implications for work design, building school culture, teachers' professional training and development, and the development of professional learning community were discussed in the context of educational reform and the ever changing environment.

Keywords: thinking style, educational leadership, primary school, teacher, Beijing

Introduction

Thinking style is a term used in cognitive psychology to describe the "consistent individual differences in preferred ways of organizing and processing information and experience" (Messick, 1976, p. 4). There are other terms such as "cognitive style" (Riding, 1991) or "learning style" (Kolb, 1976) used by different scholars. Though there are some distinctions in these terms (Yeap & Chong, 1997; Peterson, Rayner & Armstrong, 2009; Evans & Cools, 2011), thinking style (or intellectual style), as agreed by many contemporary researchers, refers to people's preferred ways of processing information and dealing with tasks (Sternberg, 1997; Zhang & Sternberg, 2005; Hunt, 2008).

The development of thinking style research is an interesting and paradoxical topic, which has been constantly searching for its identity within the larger context of educational, psychological, and business literature. Empirical studies have shown that differences in thinking styles influence almost all activities that implicate cognition in multiple and important ways, including learning, problem solving, decision making and communication. It is found that thinking style can be a better predictor of an individual's success in a particular situation than general intelligence or situational factors (Kozhevnikov, 2007). In the field of organizational psychology, thinking style is considered to be a fundamental factor affects both individual and organizational behaviour (Talbot, 1989; Sadler-Smith & Badger, 1998) and an important variable in recruitment, internal communications, and conflict management (Hayes & Allinson, 1994).

In the field of educational research, there are many studies that focus on students' learning style, teachers' teaching style, and the interaction style between teachers and students (Zhang, 2011). Evidence has shown that teacher's thinking styles make a difference to students' learning and development, teaching behaviours, as well as in the interaction between students and teachers. Actually, teachers' thinking was highlighted by some scholars as a central factor to school reform (Woodbury & Gess-Newsome, 2002). "Educational change depends on what teachers do and think—it is as simple and as complex as that" (Fullan, 1991, p. 117). Educational reform becomes complex because what teachers do is greatly influenced by what teachers think (Clark & Peterson, 1986). It is common that "there are so much reform, but so little change" (Payne, 2008, p. i). There are so many ineffective reform strategies and policies, because they do not get deep enough into the hearts and minds of teachers (Fullan, 2009, p. 4). Many educational reforms have failed, because little change has occurred in teachers' ways of thinking. Successful educational reform is only possible, when teachers' ways of thinking have changed and adapted to the new paradigms that is requested in the reform. In the literature, most researchers have focused on the contributions of thinking styles to students' academic achievement at the classroom level (Zhang & Sternberg, 1998; 2002), while few researchers takes an administrative perspective to examine teachers' thinking styles at the school level. Therefore, we are dedicated to investigate teachers' thinking styles from an organizational and administrative perspective and to examine their relations to school improvement and school effectiveness.

Theoretical Framework

It has been quite diverse in the conceptualization of thinking styles and approaches of investigation into the very meanings of them. There are various theories and tools of thinking styles, which have made the "choice of appropriate measures by practitioners increasingly difficult" (Evans & Waring, 2009, p. 173). Zhang (2011) has summarized and briefly introduced several influential integrative thinking models. These provide us a good understanding the conceptualization of thinking styles, cognitive styles, learning styles or intellectual styles. Curry's "onion" model of learning styles (1987) has outlined thinking styles into three layers resembling an onion with personality dimension the innermost, information processing dimension the middle, and individuals' instructional preferences the outermost. Miller (1987) has provided an integrated model of cognitive styles, which subordinates all styles to analytic-holistic dimensions. Riding and Cheema's (1991) have conceptualized a model of cognitive styles which classifies thinking styles into two dimensions: holistic-analytic and verbal-imagery. Grigorenko and Sternberg's (1995) model categorizes thinking styles to three traditions: cognition-centred, personality-centred, and activity-centred. Zhang and Sternberg's (2005) threefold model, which classifies intellectual styles into three types (type I, type II and type III), according to the dimensions of preferences: high degrees of structure versus low degrees of structure, cognitive simplicity versus cognitive complexity, conformity versus nonconformity, authority versus autonomy, and group versus individual work (Zhang & Sternberg, 2005). Sadler-Smith (2009) has provided a duplex model of cognitive style, which is based on the dual-process theory and sorted thinking styles with intuitive-analytic dimension. These different conceptions

and integrated models have provided us a good understanding of thinking styles and a good reference to guide this study.

This study has adopted Zhang and Sternberg's (2005) threefold model of thinking styles in devising an instrument for assessing teachers' thinking styles. However, the threefold model of intellectual styles has some drawbacks. The most obvious problem is none of the three thinking styles can be operationalized and turned into measurable variables. Additionally, it is hard to distinguish conformity from authority clearly in the conceptualization. That is there might be overlapping in their meanings among the three types of thinking styles, to some extent. There is evidence from Black's (2008) study, which based upon 789 students in a sample, demonstrated that the threefold model inventory has an unsatisfied validity. Anyway, based on the aforementioned models, we attempted to adopt and develop some of the concepts and form our own framework of thinking styles. We conceptualize that a model of teachers' thinking styles will contain five dimensions as: conformity versus nonconformity, high degrees of structure versus low degrees of structure, cognitive simplicity versus cognitive complexity, group versus individual work, and task-oriented versus relation-oriented. This study was conducted as a pilot study to test the validity of our model of thinking styles and to validate a newly created instrument with a sample of teachers from some primary schools in Beijing, China.

Aims of the Study

The aims of this are three folds. The first was to develop and validate an instrument to assess teachers' thinking styles, which is entitled as the Thinking Styles Questionnaire for Teachers (TSQ-T). The second was to explore the characteristic of thinking styles among a group of primary teachers from the schools in Beijing, China. The third was to examine how thinking styles vary with teachers' demography. Based on the above research purposes, this study was guided by the following three research questions:

1. Is the Thinking Styles Questionnaire for Teachers (TSQ-T) a valid and reliable instrument to assess teachers' thinking styles?
2. What are the characteristics of teachers' thinking styles in Beijing primary schools?
3. How do thinking styles vary with teachers' demographic variables?

Methodology

The instrument

An instrument, the *Thinking Styles Questionnaire for Teachers* (TSQ-T), was developed to assess teachers' thinking style from an organizational and administrative perspective. Four major studies have inspired the authors to create the theoretical framework and therefore the instrument that was generated from the framework. They were (i) Myers-Briggs's Type Indicator (MBTI, Myers, 1980), (ii) Kirton's Adaption-Innovation (KAI) theory (Kirton, 1989), (iii) the Cognitive Style Index (CSI, Allinson & Heyes, 1996), and (iv) the Thinking Styles Questionnaire for Teachers (TSQT, Grigorenko & Sternberg, 1993). The TSQ-T was adopted and developed from these references, because they have (i) a strong theoretical base, (ii)

high validity and reliability in their tools of measurement, (iii) been empirically based and tested, and (iv) been related to organizational behaviour.

Data collection

The initial instrument was constructed with 75 items in various subscales designed according to the theoretical framework. The sampled teachers were asked to rate each of the items in the Thinking Styles Questionnaire for Teachers (TSQ-T) on a 6-point Liker-type scale ranging from 1 (very dissimilar) to 6 (very similar). The teachers were also asked to indicate their demography in terms of gender, professional rank, teaching experience, major subject in teaching, and administrative position.

Subjects

312 teachers from six primary schools in Beijing, China were invited to take part in this study. All the six primary schools were involved in a school improvement project organized by a university. Three schools were high performing schools, while the other three were relatively low-performing. 268 valid questionnaires were obtained, which resulted a response rate of 85.9%. Among these teachers, 213 were female, and 25 were male, which was close to the population distribution, in which most teachers were female in urban primary schools in Beijing.

Data analysis

According to the theoretical framework we hypothesized, there are five major scales of thinking styles, that is, (i) conformity versus nonconformity, (ii) high degree of structure versus low degree of structure, (iii) cognitive simplicity versus cognitive complexity, (iv) group work versus individual work), and (v) task focused versus relationship focused. Within each of the major scales, there were two subscales. Principal component analysis (PCA) with oblimin rotation was conducted to each of five major scales separately. The results of factor analysis confirmed the existence of the two subscales in each of the five scales. Therefore, we concluded that the TSQ-T was a valid inventory for assessing teachers' thinking styles. A final version of the TSQ-T, with 37 valid items in five major scales and ten subscales of thinking styles, was resulted. The developed ten subscales of thinking styles were: (i) Innovative vs Conventional (from the scale of conformity versus nonconformity); (ii) Hierarchical vs Linear (from the scale of high degree of structure versus low degree of structure); (iii) Intuitive vs Analytical (from the scale of cognitive simplicity versus cognitive complexity); (iv) Independent vs Cooperative (from the scale of group versus individual work); and (v) Task-oriented vs Relation-oriented (from the scale of task focused versus relationship focused). Repeated reliability tests were also conducted in data analyses, in order to select the valid items in the construct and to examine its reliability. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the ten subscales ranged from 0.60 to 0.84. The findings of this study show that the reliability coefficients on average were higher than other instruments in thinking style studies (Coffield, Moseley, Hall & Ecclestone, 2004). Hence, the TSQ-T demonstrated a good reliability, which allowed us to perform the remaining statistical analyses.

Results

Results from a descriptive analysis indicated that, among these ten subscales of thinking styles, the cooperative thinking style was most commonly held, while the task-oriented thinking style was the least. The dominant thinking styles among the teachers were cooperative, hierarchical, and analytical. Besides, both linear thinking style and task-oriented thinking style had a wide distribution, which suggested great variations among teachers. These results seemed to be consistent with teachers' work nature which requires great opportunity of cooperation in team work; when occupied with lots of work, they tend to prioritize tasks in order; and they tend to handling and solving many problems in daily routine.

ANOVA tests were conducted to examine the variations of the ten subscales of thinking styles with the teachers' demographic variables. The major findings of these ANOVA tests are described and discussed as below.

First, male teachers scored higher on the innovative thinking style than did their female counterparts. This result suggests that, when compared with female teachers, male teachers may be more likely to challenge the rules and regulations and routines set by the school authorities and they tend to initiative new and creative ways in their educational practice. This finding was consistent with some previous cognitive and neuropsychological research on gender differences. However, this finding is contradictory with Zhang and Sternberg's (2002) finding that male teachers were more conventional. In sum, this study has provided evidence that there was indeed gender difference in thinking styles.

Second, both innovative thinking style and intuitive thinking style varied significantly with an increasing teaching experience. Teachers, who had more teaching experience, might have been exposing to a greater variety of situations and challenges. They were more able to respond to these challenges rapidly, practically and creatively. This result is consistent with Zhang's (1999) study that rich experiences had positive effects on people's thinking.

Third, senior teachers had better performance in cooperative thinking style and task-oriented thinking style than did junior teachers. Senior teachers were more competent and skilful in working collaboratively as well as working with high efficiency.

Fourth, teachers taught Chinese were more likely to use relation-oriented thinking style than teachers who taught English. The different cultures behind the two languages may be a plausible explanation of this result. Teachers who taught English may had more connections with Western culture, while teachers taught Chinese were influenced more deeply by the Confucian culture, in which, relationship plays an important role.

Fifth, there were significant differences between school top leaders and teachers in hierarchical thinking style and analytical thinking style. This result seemed to be consistent with our common knowledge that leaders and managers, who have to shoulder more responsibility for school administration and development, would have a stronger analytical mind and have thorough consideration in decision-making.

Discussion and Implication

This research has three significant contributions. First, an instrument, the Thinking Styles Questionnaire for Teachers (TSQ-T), has been developed and validated in the context of Chinese schools in Beijing and it will be useful to assess teachers' thinking styles in the workplace. Secondly, this study has contributed to the literature concerning teachers' thinking styles from an organizational and administrative perspective. Thirdly, the covariance between thinking styles and teachers' demography has been proved. The significant findings about gender difference in thinking styles and variation in the pattern of thinking styles with different teaching experience were consistent with previous research. In addition, this study has explored the variation of thinking styles with other new demographic variables, for example, professional ranks, subject background, and administrative position. Such findings allow us to have a better understanding of cognitive science and teachers' behaviour with the school organization. While, previous studies usually equate teacher's thinking style to teaching style, in the present study, we conceptualize teacher's thinking styles from an organizational and administrative perspective. This new approach of research will make the following recommendations for school improvement possible.

Work design. The present educational reform in China continuously renders the school system highly decentralized, in which teachers are facing more and more challenges. Therefore, school leaders and managers should not only understand their own ways of thinking, but also the thinking styles of teachers. Thinking styles varies from teacher to teacher and from situation to situation. If an individual's thinking style matches the information-processing requirements of his or her role or task, it is more likely that the individual will perform more effectively (Hayes & Allinson, 1994). Therefore, in work design or task assignment, particular attention should be paid to thinking style differences by school leaders and managers. Correspondingly, teachers should consider the matching of thinking styles in job selection.

School culture. A study of Kirton (1980) suggests that the match between thinking style and the local organizational environment may be a factor which helps determine which department employees prefer to work in, which implies a correlation between thinking fit and job satisfaction. The findings of this study indicate that teachers prefer an environment which is cooperative and low task-oriented. Hence, in order to enhance teachers' job satisfaction and sense of belongingness, school leaders and managers should dedicate themselves to building such environment to fit teachers' thinking. Furthermore, if creative thinking is seen to be more risky and less acceptable in a bureaucratic organization (Kirton, 1980), school leaders should make use of cultural linkage to bind people together and to conceal the dangers and risks arisen from creativity (Pang, 2003).

Teachers' professional development. Think styles can be socialized and modified (Zhang & Sternberg, 2006). Therefore, teachers who are at the senior positions and who have more teaching experience will have better performance in particular thinking styles. This implies that the setting of certain contexts in the workplace may allow teachers to practice, develop and master the thinking styles that are required in specific positions or expected by playing appropriate roles. This will enhance the quality and effectiveness of professional development programmes for teacher training.

Professional learning community. Thinking and learning are the two sides of a coin. Teachers' learning may mean a change in the ways of thinking in the teachers' mind. When groups of teachers interact and change in thinking styles collectively, they would form a professional learning community. Research evidence shows that the behaviour and effectiveness of teams are dependent upon the levels of homogeneity and heterogeneity of thinking styles of team members (Priola, Smith & Armstrong, 2004). Though members in a community with homogeneity might feel more comfortable, the group with heterogeneity in thinking styles was essential to change and creativity (Armstrong, Heijden & Smith, 2012). Therefore, when leading a professional learning community, different thinking styles need to be taken into account.

A few limitations in this study should be noted. First, our framing of the questions and the literature review are inspired by research studies from the western culture and perspective; yet, our subjects are Chinese teachers, hence, the results and implications may need to be considered in the cultural contexts. Furthermore, as we relied on teachers' self-reporting information, there might be problems of social desirability, where teachers might report the desired thinking styles. Thus, subsequent empirical research that uses multiple and more robust measures is needed. Additionally, the study only investigated primary school teachers in Beijing, China. Therefore, caution must be exercised in attempting to generalize these results to other schools or contexts.

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BREAKING THE CYCLE OF POVERTY THROUGH EARLY LITERACY SUPPORT AND TEACHER EMPOWERMENT IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Abstract

The majority of people in Southern and Eastern Africa (SEA) including Zimbabwe, Kenya and Uganda live in rural areas on less than two dollars a day. The countries however share education values based on the conviction that education will transform society and as a result have embraced the Millennium Development (MDG) and Education for All (EFA) Goals as benchmarks for their educational reform agenda. SEA countries are largely faced with a situation where families are saddled by and cannot break from the cycle of poverty partly because of lack of children's sustainable school access. Sustained access to meaningful learning is critical to long term improvements in productivity, the reduction of inter-generational cycles of poverty, demographic transition, preventive health care, the empowerment of women and reduction of poverty. This paper argues that this will depend very much on constructive early years teacher pedagogical practices among other factors. An expanded definition of education access includes concerns for attendance as well as enrolment, progression at the appropriate age, achievement of learning goals, equitable access to opportunities to learn and availability of an adequate learning environment. This paper uses the UNESCO Millennium Development Goals as its framework to advocate early years teachers' further in-school training and development. It utilizes a descriptive analytical methodology to contribute to the reflective discussion on educational reforms for transformation based mainly on examples from three countries in SEA given above. It mainly focuses on the role that teachers can play in enhancing sustainable access to Early Literacy through adequate training. The paper utilizes findings from studies in Zimbabwe, Kenya and Uganda as the backdrop of the challenges facing the education systems. The paper concludes that every effort is required to promote early years pedagogies that will lead to more sustainable school access and the escape from the poverty cycle in Southern and Eastern Africa.

Using education and human capital as drivers of transformation and development

According to UNESCO (2010), Sub Saharan Africa currently has all the most negative statistics ranging from poverty, school dropout rates, gender inequalities in school, incidence of HIV and AIDS and some of the most undemocratic governments of the world. Currently however, many SEA countries are implementing several initiatives to transform the social and economic conditions of their populations. Education is one of the key drivers of socio-economic reform and this paper focuses on the early school years sector (Grades one to four) herein referred to as early years to discuss how the situation of perennial failure to meet educational targets can be salvaged. The paper advocates for quality early years literacy development for the sustainable schooling of children from low-resourced

communities. Quality early literacy development is central to sustainable schooling and long term educational outcomes that will enable families to break the cycle of poverty (World Declaration on Education for All, 1990; World Education Forum, 2000). The focus is on education because it empowers people and strengthens nations as it is, to a great extent, a powerful “equalizer”, opening doors to all to lift themselves out of poverty. Education is critical to the world’s attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs, <http://www.developmentgoals.org/>) and most SEA countries share the Vision to get their economies into the middle income status by 2025. Education has proven benefits for personal health, as much as it strengthens nations’ economic health by laying the foundation for sustained economic growth. For individuals and nations, it is key to creating, applying, and spreading knowledge and thus to the development of dynamic, globally competitive economies (The World Bank Report, 2011, <http://go.worldbank.org/F5K8Y429G0>). At a political and governance level, education is fundamental for the construction of democratic societies. Two of the eight MDGs pertain to education—the universal primary completion and the gender parity in primary and secondary schooling. Moreover, education—especially girls’ education—has a direct and proven impact on the goals related to child and reproductive health and environmental sustainability (UNESCO, 2010). Education additionally promotes economic growth, national productivity and innovation, values of democracy and social cohesion. Without the knowledge and various skills developed through schooling and other basic education programmes, the opportunities for individuals and the ability to act independently are greatly reduced (UNESCO, 2010).

SEA countries need to remain alert and take cognisance of the fact that access to schooling has continued to improve in low-income countries over recent years, even so especially for girls, but still widespread problems with school quality remain. Acute teacher shortages, overcrowded classrooms, poor infrastructure, lack of materials, and inadequate contact time are endemic (UNESCO, 2008). Ironically, the very gains in school access have exacerbated the quality issue. The influx of children following successful enrolment drives has in many SEA countries put added pressure on already under-resourced schools. The impoverished background of many new learners explains why, just providing more school inputs, can fail to show any effect (Banerjee, Cole, Duflo & Linden, 2006). Further, significant barriers to the achievement of basic competence is created by high rates of malnutrition and ill health; low rates of parental literacy and an absence of pre-school education in combination with poorly trained teachers and under-resourced schools. This paper reiterates that early literacy teachers require special in-school training since currently Literacy is the most neglected of the EFA goals as most children in low achieving countries are unable to comprehend grade-level texts. UWEZO East Africa 2012 Report highlights:

Two out of three pupils in Standard 3 across East Africa are not able to pass basic tests in English, Kiswahili or numeracy at the Standard 2 level. This is the headline finding of a new report by Uwezo at Twaweza. By the time they reach Standard 7, two in 10 pupils still do not have Standard 2 level competencies.

According to the Regional Manager of Uwezo East Africa, “Despite significant gains in expanding access to primary schooling, actual literacy and numeracy outcomes remain significantly deficient across the region”. (p. 1). The EFA Global

Monitoring Report (2008) points out that these challenges are widely recognized to be greatest in sub-Saharan Africa, where both access and quality remain critical problems. The region has the highest proportion of out-of-school children, the greatest gender disparities, the highest ratio of pupils to teachers and the lowest primary completion rates. Less universally recognized is the widespread disregard, worldwide, for the earliest years of schooling (Colette, 2008). Focus on the role of early years teachers training is pertinent and overdue because an expanded definition of education access includes concerns for attendance as well as enrolment, progression at the appropriate age, achievement of learning goals, equitable access to opportunities to learn and availability of an adequate learning environment (Fataar, 2011, p. 64) which teachers are in the best position to leverage.

Teacher empowerment for children's sustainable access to schooling

Given the political, economic, social, and cultural dynamics in the SEA countries, early literacy teacher development is one educational node that can be exploited to influence change. While recognizing the efficacy of parental involvement in children's literacy development, (see Ngwaru, 2012), this paper deliberately focuses on early literacy teachers because they receive, teach and 'parent' pupils from all backgrounds and home environments. Teacher practices in low-resourced and socio-economically disadvantaged communities need to be honed for effective early literacy development because well trained early years teachers will train children to learn effectively in turn. Teacher and pupil empowerment requires deconstruction and reflection.

This paper uses Donald Schon's (1983) view of reflection described by Usher et. al. (1997, p. 143) as an alternative epistemology of practice 'in which the knowledge inherent in practice is to be understood as artful doing'. This is opposed to technical-rationality, a positivist epistemology of practice described as the dominant paradigm which has failed to resolve the dilemma of rigour versus relevance that confronts professionals (op.cit.). Based on this view of reflection, teachers will be trained to take cognizance of and apply transformative reflective pedagogy and avoid being constrained by age-old practices based on coercive relations of power (Ball, 2000; Cummins, 1997; Apple & King, 1983; Shor, 1992) and will be encouraged to consider themselves as connoisseurs and critics of pedagogy (Eisner, 1985; 1998). In this view Early years teachers will then use Schon's (ibid) notion of reflection-in-action, sometimes described as 'thinking on our feet' (Smith, 2012) which would involve looking at their experiences and practices, connecting with their feelings, and attending to the theories in use at the same time. This way, their training will enable them to build new understandings to inform their actions in the situation that will keep unfolding.

Deconstruction on the other hand is the de-centring of a fixed truth so as to make room for alternate realities and experiences (Giblin, 2006). It involves taking something that is seemingly static and rigid (like a word we use all the time, or a way of doing things that people take for granted) and giving it your own voice and perspective in order to make it your own via your life experiences (ibid). Teachers and students must therefore be empowered to shift educational experiences from the consumer perspective to the producer or inquisitor, in the process, giving all parties more authority, freedom and flexibility. Empowered early years teachers will ensure

that as children grow older, they learn to manage their emotions—to shake off feelings of anxiety, sadness, or frustration, and to delay gratification in order to achieve a goal (Goleman, 1994).

Teachers will be encouraged to remember that based on current research, literacy development begins long before children begin formal instruction in elementary school (Allington & Cunningham, 1996; Clay, 1991; Teale & Sulzby, 1986). It develops on a path where children acquire literacy skills in a variety of ways and at different ages. Teachers need to be aware that early behaviours such as "reading" from pictures and "writing" scribbles (Sulzby, 1989; Sulzby & Teale, 1996, p. 728; Morrow, 1997) are an important part of children's literacy development. They need to know and ensure that social interactions and consistent exposure to literacy materials such as storybooks nourish literacy development. Above all, they need to remember that when they receive children from home, they have to make children feel that the school is an extension of home by offering daily, extended conversations about topics that are meaningful and of interest to children. It is essential that they value children's social and cultural experiences since they are among the adults who have a lasting influence on children's literacy development.

Early years literacy teachers are therefore expected to create pedagogical and literacy rich environments that ensure that children engage in one-on-one conversations about everyday life – activities, people, or events children find interesting. Such environments will include daily reading, extended discourse (talking or writing), experimentation with reading materials, book talk (discussion of characters, action, and plot), and dramatic play. In this environment, children have many opportunities to see how printed words are used for many purposes (Burns, Griffin & Snow, 1999). They become familiar with print and language, and these are both integrated into everyday activities. Teachers must strive to create Literacy-rich environments at school and home to ensure that:

- ❖ Parents get involved in their children's literacy development at home and school.
- ❖ Various reading and writing materials are available throughout the school and home for children and adults.
- ❖ Adults share their ideas and feelings with children and encourage them to express themselves.
- ❖ Children see adults reading for pleasure and for practical and specific purposes, such as paying bills or learning about the news.
- ❖ Families consider children's emergent reading and writing to be real, valuable experiences. They accept children's efforts without correcting mistakes or providing direct instruction.
- ❖ Families talk with children about the print they see around them and explain how it provides information (e.g., signs on buses and streets, labels on food packages, and coupons).
- ❖ Teachers provide the experience of group learning and design their classrooms to encourage reading and writing.

How feasible this is in the socio-economic environments of Sub-Saharan Africa will depend on policy alignment to the educational needs of the countries concerned. For example, Ngwaru (2010), recounts the tenuous relations between parents and school teachers in a study on Literacy practices at home and school (p. 144-5):

... parents perceived that they had no role to play in the formal schooling of their children, believing and convinced that this was the sole responsibility of the school. Similarly, teachers saw parents as having no part to play in the school believing it was adequate to meet only the Parent Teacher Association.

The East Africa Quality Early Learning (EAQEL) study in Kenya and Uganda (Ngwaru & Njoroge, 2011) had similar findings when teachers confessed to having had no clear awareness of the importance of paying attention to details of their pedagogical practice. The EAQEL study was based on a pedagogical intervention that trained teachers to prioritize key pedagogical practices in early literacy classes including critical pedagogy, good preparation for classes, provision of adequate suitable learning materials, creating conducive learning environments, and taking interest in learners, among other things. It was found that when teachers embraced these, pupil participation and learning outcomes improved significantly (Ngwaru & Njoroge, 2011, p. 28). The EAQEL study demonstrated that when teachers are given in-school training and embrace improved pedagogies, children were by far more relaxed and engaged with higher outputs as recounted by one project officer:

The EAQEL Project has registered successes and achievements in the various outcome areas. On the first outcome (improved teacher practice): most teachers now go to class more prepared than before the inception of the Project; most teachers now have schemes of work and lesson plans. The use of the 5 RtL (Reading to Learn) steps in teaching literacy has resulted in greater mastery of reading by pupils in lower primary levels. Class 1 pupils can re-tell a story told to them. They can also read texts with their teachers, identify words outside texts and write words and sentences in the texts.

Cues from EAQEL illustrated that if teachers invested in making pupils feel valued, the young learners will genuinely enjoy the learning process and excel as further evidence came from a report from a Maths class observation.

The Maths lessons went on like a workshop with pupils routinely turning to the abundant learning materials in the form of counters in sticks, pebbles and plastic spoons as they solved the problems practically. There was evidence of understandable enthusiasm, genuine learning practices and constructive engagement of teacher-learner, learner-content, learner-learner and learner-learning materials.

In separate classroom observations in Zimbabwe (Ngwaru, 2010) and in Ghana (Ngwaru & Opoku-Amankwa, 2010) pupils were often found to be subdued and stranded especially in English as a Second language (ESL) classes. These pupils revealed how teachers alienated them through selective attention, derogatory remarks and apparent disregard to professionalism (Ngwaru & Opoku-Amankwa, 2010, p. 295).

Conclusion

While Sub Saharan Africa currently has all the most negative statistics ranging from poverty, school dropout rates, gender inequalities in school, incidence of HIV and AIDS and some of the most undemocratic governments of the world, something can still be done. All these are not likely to go away soon but working towards their

reduction and complete reversal can begin now with early literacy development and pedagogical innovations. Children are not only the future of the world, but educated children are indeed the guarantors of a future that can ensure that the sub-region will compare to other regions of the world. A child's ability to learn and to function as a contributing member of society rests heavily on the development of social competency and emotional health that begins at birth and is greatly influenced during the early school years. While governments may see in-school teacher development programmes as difficult and costly, the benefits will far outweigh the costs. This paper calls upon governments to value the future of children and families genuinely to ensure a sustainable future for the countries of the region.

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DESIGNING COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN THE SCIENCE CLASSROOM: INTEGRATING THE PEER TUTORING SMALL INVESTIGATION GROUP (PTSIG) WITHIN THE MODEL OF THE SIX MIRRORS OF THE CLASSROOM MODEL

Abstract

The model of the six mirrors of the classroom and its use in teaching biology in a cooperative learning mode were implemented in high school classrooms. In this study we present:

- a) The model of the six mirrors of the classroom (MSMC).
- b) Cooperative learning settings: 1. The Group Investigation; 2. The Jigsaw Method; and 3. Peer Tutoring in Small Investigative Groups (PTSIG).
- c) Two biology topics: 1. Microorganism; 2. Evolution.

The MSMC examines the processes of a) organization, b) learning tasks, c) teacher instructional behaviors, d) teachers' communicative behaviors, e) students' academic performance, and (f) students' social behaviors. Each mirror is described in terms of five levels of complexity from simple to complex. Both subjects were taught in Cooperative Learning Methods: The Jigsaw Method, Group Investigation (GI) rooted in Dewey's (1927) philosophy, and Peer Tutoring in small Investigative Groups which is a combination of the Jigsaw method and Group Investigation.

Two biology subjects were instructed through the MSCM and PTSIG: 1) Microorganisms, learning unit written in Arabic and Hebrew for 9th grade students in the STS approach structured around two biological principles: a) the unity of the life, b) the relationship between structure and function. 2) Evolution, learning unit for 12th grade students, included topics on Lamarck's, Darwin's and neutral theories, punctuated equilibrium, genetics diversity, natural selection, specialization and phylogenesis. The paper will include the subjects, research procedure and results.

Key words: Six mirrors of the classroom, cooperative learning, microorganisms, evolution

Introduction

In this study we present:

- a) The model of the six mirrors of the classroom (MSMC), developed by Hertz-Lazarowitz (1992).
- b) Three methods of cooperative learning: 1. The Group Investigations (Sharan & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 1980, 1986); 2. The Jigsaw method (Aronson et al, 1978); and 3. Peer Tutoring in Small Investigative Groups (PTSIG developed by Lazarowitz & Karsenty, 1990).
- c) Two biology topics: 1. Microorganism (Khalil & Lazarowitz, 2002); 2. Evolution (Ron & Lazarowitz, 1997), taught at the secondary school level, within the model of the six mirrors of the classroom (MSMC).

The Six mirrors of the classroom

The model examines classroom processes and includes six mirrors of the classroom: (1) *organization*, (2) *learning tasks*, (3) *teacher instructional behaviours*, (4) *teacher communicative behaviours*, (5) *students' academic performance*, and (6) *student social behaviours*. Each mirror is described in terms of five levels of complexity from simple to complex.

The model served as a conceptual framework which guided classroom observation, in behavioural categories: On task, off task behaviors, level of students' cooperation in the interaction, and helping and social events which occur in learning. Teachers were trained to design their classroom environment, and move from traditional whole classroom instruction to more active and then cooperative learning. The model and its measures assisted the research by testing the effects of cooperative learning on students' academic and societal outcomes. The conceptual dynamics among the six mirrors enabled us to formulate predictions and to analyze a variety of variables. For example, quality of on-task cooperation as expressed by content, frequency of in-group communication, and level of reasoning, predicted academic and societal outcomes. *The six mirrors of the traditional classrooms:* The traditional classroom is usually the whole classroom direct teaching (Also called Frontal or Expository teaching). The observations indicated that physical organization (Mirror 1) of the traditional classroom is usually perceived as fixed with little or no movements of students around the room. The Learning tasks (Mirror 2) were presented to the whole class and then, each student tackled the learning task alone. The teacher communicated with the class as a whole with a high frequency of lecturing, disciplining, and commenting on negative events in the class (Mirrors 3 and 4).

Research results of the implementation of the MSMC

Classroom structure and dynamics were obtained using video tapes and observers' coding. Findings indicated that there were differences between traditional classrooms, where expository teaching was dominant, as compared to active and cooperative classrooms, with considerable student interaction.

Students' behaviours (Mirrors 5 and 6) were mostly solitary on-task and off-task activities. Interactive behaviours, which included on-task and off-task and helping activities, were observed for about 25 percent of the time. Interactions among students were not initiated by the teacher and in fact, constituted mostly brief clandestine types of activities.

Developmental observations showed that from first to twelfth grade, students maintained a stable interactive "on task behaviour" (about 15%), but increased their "off task" interactive behaviours. For teachers, an increase in social off-task interactions was considered a negative outcome, indicating growing discipline problems and disturbances of the teacher's classroom management.

The six mirrors of the cooperative learning classroom

In contrast to traditional classrooms, teachers designed their Cooperative Learning classrooms so that the physical setting (Mirror1) included 4-5 subsystems (groups), multiple resources for learning, and considerable movement and contact

among the groups. Learning tasks (Mirror 2), were divided horizontally, as in a Jigsaw structure, or vertically and integrated, as in the Group Investigation method. In the jigsaw method, students are assigned to groups of about 4-6 members, with all groups working on the same topic. In each group, each member studies a different section of the topic, and then members from all groups who studied the same section meet in "expert groups" to discuss their section. Students then return to their groups and teach their group members about their section. In Group Investigation, students in the class form groups of 2-6 members, each group chooses a subtopic from the general topic assigned to the class, and produces a group report. Subsequently, each group shares its findings with the entire class in the form of presentations and class discussions. These Cooperative Learning tasks, which involved peer learning and peer teaching, were designed to increase interdependence and personal as well as collective responsibility.

The pattern of teacher's communication and instructional behaviours (Mirror 3 and 4) included communication with the whole class for a short period of time, then with each of the groups as well as with individuals who needed help. The teacher observed a given group at a time and helped advance the group's discussion to a higher level. Most of the time teachers were helping, explaining, and giving feedback to students. Little disciplining took place and only a few negative comments were heard in the class.

In this context, students engaged quite frequently in interactive, cooperative and helping behaviours. It was observed that within lively and stimulating group discussions, peer learning was at a high cognitive level. These descriptions of class activities and dynamics exemplify how the "anatomy of cooperation" model of the six mirrors enabled the observation and investigation of academic outcome.

The Jigsaw Method (Aronson et al, 1978)

In The Jigsaw method, the class is divided into small groups of heterogeneous five students who can treat each other as resources. The learning goals and materials are structured by the teacher and are divided into independent sub-units which can be learned separately so that one sub-unit does not depend on the mastery of others.

The jigsaw is composed from two cooperative structures; the jigsaw (5 students A to E) and the experts group (5 students with the same part 5a, 5b, 5c, etc.). In the expert group students master their part and prepare for peer-tutoring, then they return to the jigsaw group to tutor their teammates and prepare for a test. The original jigsaw was further extended to jigsaw II, experts-jigsaw and in jigsaw-investigative group.

Group Investigation (GI) (Sharan & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 1980, 1986)

Group investigation is rooted in Dewey's (1927) philosophy. GI integrates four basic features: investigation, interaction, interpretation and intrinsic motivation. These features are combined in six stages of the model: 1. The class determines subtopics and organizes into research groups; 2. Groups plan their investigation; 3. Groups carry out their investigation; 4. Groups plan their presentations; 5. Groups make their presentation; 6. Teacher and students evaluate their projects. In GI the investigation process is presented in each stage; groups select topics for

investigation by their interest and curiosity. Thus in the GI classroom groups work on *different*, but *related* topics of investigation. They use a variety of resources to generate questions, gather information in the investigation and become active in constructing their knowledge. The teacher is a facilitator, a mentor and a collaborator in the student's inquiry process (Sharan & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 1980, 1986; Hertz-Lazarowitz & Calderon, 1994).

Peer Tutoring in small Investigative Groups (PTSIG)

The method was developed by Lazarowitz and Karsenty (1990) as a combination of the Jigsaw method and Group Investigation (GI). The PTSIG was experimented on in a secondary school. The method includes the following structures: The Jigsaw structure for peer-tutoring, and the GI structure for the expert counter group. The teacher as a curricula developer, designs the biology related learning tasks for each sub-unit, as an inquiry-investigative sequence of activities. Therefore, students work, especially in their expert group, on complex and rich learning tasks. In their expert-group students read, make observations on the objects studied and generate questions for laboratory investigative experiments. The tasks include open questions and biological problems which could be solved only by using microscopes, preparing slides or performing experiments with other group members. After they finish their learning tasks in the expert group, they return to their Jigsaw group for peer tutoring. Usually, the different sub-topics which were investigated, are presented and discussed within the original Jigsaw group in order to acquire a general understanding and knowledge of the topics.

The evaluation is based on students' academic products in their expert groups, and their grades in a test on all the units. The students prepare for the final test with further reading. The teacher occasionally leads the discussion with the whole class to organize and conceptualize significant biological concepts. Topics such as the cells, animal physiology, photosynthesis in higher plants, and evolution are topics which can be naturally divided into five independent sub-units and can be learned in a jigsaw investigative method. Teachers-researchers in Israel, have implemented PTSGI, developed curricula to be used in high-school biology classrooms.

The positive academic and social outcomes of Cooperative Learning are presented in many writings (Gillis & Ashman, 2003; Hertz-Lazarowitz, 1992, 2005; Hertz-Lazarowitz & Zelniker, 1995; Lazarowitz & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 1998; Lazarowitz, 2007; Slavin, 1995; Slavin, Hurley & Chamberlain, 2003).

Two biology subjects instructed through the MSCM.

1. Microorganisms

This learning unit was written in Arabic and Hebrew for 9th grade Israeli and Arab students in the STS approach, by Khalil and Lazarowitz, 2002. The learning unit was structured around two biological principles: a) the unity of the life, and b) the relationship between structure and function. The following topics were included in the learning unit: microorganisms and their structure, the physiological processes, microorganisms' role in the food web, carbon and nitrogen cycles, food industry, environment and the level of health society. The problems raised in the unit were concerned with health issues, environment, microorganisms and drainage

canalization between neighbourhood villages, allowing students to investigate achievement in the cognitive and affective domains (attitudes toward environment preservation, and understanding and peace between people who live close to each other). The unit helped students to master practical skills in the laboratory work, and problem solving skills. The learning tasks included individual and small group instructional settings in classrooms and laboratory work. Students read scientific essays, watched videos, played group games, went on group trips to observe nature, visited food industries and searched for information from different sources, internet and libraries. The learning unit raised students' motivation by being practical, connected with daily life and dealing with societal issues. In this manner the relationship between science, technology, environment and society was emphasized.

The outcomes on the cognitive and affective domains were obtained analyzing students' portfolios written while studying in the classroom, in the laboratory and during their home work. The results show that students improved academic achievement, developed positive attitudes toward the environment, and understood the issues related to preservation of nature and its relation to peace (Khalil & Lazarowitz, 2002; Khalil, Lazarowitz & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2009).

2. Evolution

In the study conducted by Ron and Lazarowitz (1997) with 12th grade students, the topic of evolution was taught in an instructional mode of cooperative learning groups. The topics were; Lamarck's, Darwin's and neutral theories, punctuated equilibrium, genetics diversity, natural selection, specialization and phylogenesis. The results showed that students' academic achievement were higher compared with the control group. The explanation was based on the fact that cooperative learning facilitates students' verbal interaction and construction of the knowledge based on group interaction and cooperation (Ron & Lazarowitz, 1997).

The biology teaching and learning in the classrooms and laboratory work offers many opportunities for the evaluation and grading procedures, beside the use of the classical test following the instruction of a unit (Lazarowitz, 2000; Lazarowitz & Tamir, 1994).

In implementing these methods, a complex and rich teaching and learning processes are taking place in the classroom. The teacher has to become an engineer of the learning tasks, and a designer of the physical setting of learning, as the teacher has to orchestrate instructional and communicative behaviours to produce quality learning that will maximize the social- academic performance of the students.

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THE EFFECTS OF EDUCATIONAL REFORM

Abstract

Educational reform implies questions of social production and of state regulation that are the key words in educational reform, education and educational policies. These reforms are always on the political agenda of countries and involve international organisms, since education is a vehicle of development for social progress.

A point of departure is that all reform incorporates a certain level of consensus on the part of the actors involved, but that would be an ideal which rarely occurs, and then only when there is a national or regional vision.

Introduction

The objective of educational reform is to fulfil the world-wide commitments made on the subject of the education. When speaking of the educational reform, reference is often made to changes and transformations in the scholastic system in relation to such factors as educational philosophy, student policy, curriculum, pedagogy, didactics, organization, management, financing and links with national development in this century, the consensuses that the prime purpose of education is care for and improve holistic education in early childhood, especially for the most vulnerable and underprivileged children, and to guarantee access to free, compulsory and high quality education.

The present document attempts to review some reflections made by the researchers, and by teachers, on some aspects of the dynamics established to take address the educational challenges at present in our country, recognising among them some facilitating aspects and some obstructive aspects, which in turn affect the course of reform in Mexico and Latin America.

Educational Reform

Within the field of education, reforms of education are undoubtedly one of the most complex and controversial subjects, because of the effects that they generate in the societies and countries where they take place. Nevertheless, this situation makes it possible to investigate the reasons why such reforms generate substantial changes in the school systems where they are applied. The present study takes as its object the analysis of great educational reforms across the world in order to relate some of the main lines of development: when the curricular design is changed and the consequent curricula; when the system as a whole is modernised, imposing more agile and effective dynamic for institutional operation; when decentralizing the central bureaucracy; when an attempt is made to raise the general quality of education, in order to improve the academic yield of students and reduce school failure; when an attempt is made to adapt educational formation to the demands of the labour market; when changes in pedagogical styles are introduced for educational reasons; when there is a wish to transform the institutional cultures of

the schools; when the intention is to improve the organization and institutional management of schools.

It is not possible to avoid the fact that the reforms arise in a historical, social, economic, and political context. Consequently, it is important to consider this when designing, implementing, evaluating or analyzing reforms. For Popkewitz (2002), educational reforms imply questions of social production and state regulation, which they in turn “construct”. Reforms, then, depend on a discourse that often remains hidden, or implicit, and that determines our way of looking at the school world; visions that produce social values and relationships of power that are not neutral.

The purpose of educational reforms is to transform school structures with the aim of raising the quality of education in a country.

Reforms and Their Objectives

Educational reforms deserve a holistic examination of their reasons, objectives, application and results generated, by those within the school systems where they are implemented. These reforms are always on the political agenda of countries and the international organisations involved in their design and application, in relation to one view of development and the world-wide conception of education. Nobody would deny the strategic nature of education as a vehicle for development and social progress. World-wide discussion of the subject does not focus on this point, but on the effects and results of reform in terms of policies of economic and social development, as well as on implementation, financing, quality and effectiveness which is desired by all the actors involved in this transforming vision.

This contribution is developed from a review of the policies, continental programmes and realities that are necessary to understand the present situation and to glimpse future of reforms in the education of present century.

It is important to understand the object or intention of the educational reform, which normally focuses on certain common factors such as quality, access, equality of opportunity, finance, management, effectiveness, efficiency and competitiveness in the school systems of primary, secondary, tertiary and non-university education. In the same way, it is important to understand the type or model of reform according to the intention that drives these processes at the regional or global level, adding to the complexity of implementation, and generating barriers that can prevent the attainment of goals. In this context, a number of authors have worked on these questions.

And finally, reforms that originate in or are influenced by the world-wide consensus on education generate educational products that somehow eclipse the degree of success or failure of these reforms in a particular framework of frame and management.

When speaking of educational reform, one speaks of changes and transformations in the school system involving such factors as educational philosophy, student policies, curriculum, pedagogy, didactics, organization, management, finance, and their links with the development of the nations.

In relation to this last point, the world-wide consensus around the reforms of the education and their links to development is almost total, and influenced all educational reforms in the twentieth century. This is confirmed by the consensual nature of many of the relevant treaties relating to education, including the Universal

Declaration of Human Rights, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the World-wide Declaration on Education for All (Jomtien, 1990), the World Summit for Children (1990), the Conference on Environment and Development (1992), the World Conference on Human Rights (1993), the World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality (1994), the International Conference on Population and Development (1994), the World Summit for Social Development (1995), the Fourth World Conference on Women (1995), the Mid-Decade Meeting of the International Consultative Forum on Education for All (1996), the International Conference on the Adult Education (1997) and the International Conference on Child Labour (1997) (UNESCO, 2010).

In the twenty first century, this world-wide consensus on lifelong education continues as can be seen in the Dakar Framework for Action on Education for All, and the Millennium Declaration and Millennium Development Goals in the year 2000.

These agreements on education were promoted by international organisations as a unifying focus for educational policies directed to all the regions of the planet, but were directly addressed mainly to the developing countries, because of their lack of organisation and funding – among other things.

From the point of view of the developed countries, these reforms unfolded with more autonomy because of the interests these states had and the social pressures of educational actors in these nations. These demands were taken up with certain effectiveness due to the strength of their school systems that could respond to such pressures appropriately to the needs of the prevailing economic system, which saw education as a vehicle for the development (Miñana, 2000).

The Causes and Origins of Educational Reforms

Among the processes of transformation that result from routine actions of the actors in education, a differentiated situation emerged. On the one hand, some institutions began to develop a process of developing greater institutional autonomy, as a result of which they began to make decisions about curricular and educational aspects, that in some cases can be described as producers of quality and fairness. On the other, a perhaps greater number of institutions consolidated traditional styles of operation that ritualised the fulfilment of activities, and lost any sense of their purpose, contributing to the deterioration of quality.

Nevertheless, and in spite of variety of circumstances, it would seem that in all the countries of Latin America it is the nation states that they are causing, articulating, leading and determining the new processes of regulation and configuration of educational systems in the form they have maintained over time. The industrialists and other actors in the sector are more influential than the politicians who propose reforms in an erratic and discontinuous cycle: at certain times they worry and they occupy themselves with educational issues, while at others, they ignore the initiatives and cannot be bothered to delegate.

In spite of this, in these countries there is also a clear consensus that considers reform to be necessary to adapt educational structures and school management to sustainable development and the strengthening of socio-economic conditions in the region through quality education for all.

Conclusions

It is no easy task to determine the extent of effectiveness of educational reforms in the world. Each country has its successes and failures in these reforms. Nevertheless some efforts have been made to evaluate the outcomes of reform internationally from a qualitative/quantitative perspective. It is believed that to evaluate this process, one should start from some of the most important outcomes, starting from the goals that have been set in international accords, as well as of the main benefits of school reform, which are on a par with the socially accepted indicators proposed by each country involved.

In this sense, the agreements of the 1990s allocated the dominant role to primary education in the development of nations. The results obtained depended upon the circumstances and the difficulties faced on each continent. Nevertheless, the objectives drawn up in the declaration of Education for All were partly fulfilled.

The strengthening of the belief that the fundamental basis for development is education is even clearer. In the poor countries, this commitment is still greater, since for historical, cultural, political and economic reasons, the educational reforms are so swamped in complexity, that the expected benefits of achieving the goals established in the global consensus on education is only now bearing fruit. The commitment continues, and everybody needs to make an effort.

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Part 4

Higher Education, Lifelong Learning and Social Inclusion

JAMES OGUNLEYE

INTERACTIONS BETWEEN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING AND THE LABOUR MARKET IN EUROPE: A CASE STUDY OF IRELAND'S FORMALISED FEEDBACK MECHANISMS

Abstract

The work reported in this paper is part of a large European study commissioned by the Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop) which explores interactions between the labour market and vocational education and training as well as up-dates the content Initial Vocational Education and Training (IVET) provision in 15 European countries in the study. This paper presents the interactions between VET and the labour market in the Republic of Ireland. The paper examines the nature of VET system, the feedback mechanisms and the characterisation of the feedback loops in Ireland's VET system. The paper concludes with a highlight of the significant features of the interactions between VET and the labour market.

Keywords: VET, Labour market, feedback mechanisms, feedback loops, Europe

The nature of Ireland VET system

Ireland operates a coordinated vocational education and training system in the context of coordinated market economy. The key elements of the coordination are the national government and the social partners – such as the Irish Business and Employers Confederation, the Construction Industry Confederation and the trade unions, who are members of the Irish Congress of Trade Unions. Parties in this partnership work together to shape the country's social and economic developments in particular issues relating to the labour market and education and training. The partnership agreements are encapsulated in a rolling national programme for economic and social developments. The system of national partnership is essential for the realisation of the objectives of the National Reform Programme (NRP) that sets out a three yearly plan on how the government aims to meet the European Commission's Employment Guidelines as set out in the Lisbon Strategy. The current NRP articulates how Ireland intends to achieve a sustainable high level of employment, adequate supply of labour to meet the demand of the economy, as well as the national efforts to improve education and training. Although, a system of social partnership has been in place since 1987, the current partnership agreement,

which runs from 2006-2016 faces a challenging time more so since December 2009 when the Irish Business and Employers Confederation (IBEC) decided to withdraw from the agreement in the face of the most severe economic recession in Irish modern history. IBEC's decision has raised questions about the employers' commitment to skills acquisition as a driver of competitiveness and equity. The population of Ireland is small and as such, the country has no strong regional VET authority; but there is a strong representation of the state at the local and city levels through the 33 vocational education committees (VECs). VECs are statutory local education authorities with responsibility for among other things vocational educational training and the implementation of VET programmes. FAS, the National Training and Employment Authority, deliver initial VET locally through 23 VEC training centres across the country. The social partners are represented within the structure of the national partnership system. However, the role of the social partners in vocational training is narrow and limited, in most cases, to industrial training, hotel and hospitality training, HR and a few others.

Overview of VET system and pathways

There is no single 'one-stop' VET policy in Ireland as different policy aspects fall under different ministries (Ogunleye, 2011). The Department of Education and Science has responsibility for school-based vocational education while the labour market authorities, led by the Department of Enterprise, Trade and Employment, have responsibility for vocational training system. As a result, figures for VET participation are not easily delineated. VET participation at lower secondary level are limited to Youthreach programme delivered in vocational education centres and Young Traveller Programme delivered in Travellers training centres. VET participation by youngsters in upper secondary level education represents a third of the total students. The age of participants in upper secondary education ranges from 16 to 18 years. The apprenticeship system is 100% vocational and managed by FAS, the National Training and Employment Authority, with the support of the government, employers and the trade unions under the umbrella of the National Apprenticeship Advisory Committee. Minimum age for participation is 16 years.

VET in Ireland is an open system because it interacts with other pathways in the education system. At lower secondary level, the main IVET programme relates to: Youthreach, which provides integrated education, training and work experience for youngsters, aged 16 to 21 who have left school early without qualifications or vocational training. The Youthreach programmes are managed locally by VECs and regionally by FAS. Successful completion leads to progression onto the Junior Certificate or LCAP. At upper secondary level: There is a two-year school based full-time course for students on the Leaving Certificate Vocational Programme. LCVP is 100% school-based; LCVP provides students with qualifications for employment and for pursuing further studies including third level education and self employment (Refnet, 2009). There is also a two-year school based full-time course for students on the Leaving Certificate Applied Programme (LCAP). LCAP is considered more vocationally oriented than LCVP as it integrates learning from a variety of contexts – including practical and non-practical modules. Many secondary level schools also offer Post-Leaving Certificate VET courses for school leavers who might want to upgrade their qualifications or further their studies. PLC is

designed to enhance participants' employability (Government of Ireland, 2011). PLC is one of the largest full-time further education programmes in Ireland offering over 1000 courses in 60 disciplines, delivering in 213 centres in schools and colleges (OECD, 2010).

Overview of formalised feedback mechanisms

At the level of lower and upper secondary vocational education, Minister for Education and Skills determines the curriculum on the advice of the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA), a statutory body. However, the curriculum for each apprenticeship programme has to be agreed with the requisite industry. The apprenticeship scheme is outside the remit of NCCA. The *Economic and Social Research Institute* and FAS, the *National Training and Employment Authority*, are leaders in Ireland in forecasting labour market skills demand and anticipation. The *Expert Group on Future Skills Needs* (EGFSN) advises the Government on current and future skills needs of the economy. EGFSN ensures that labour market needs for skilled workers are anticipated and met (Forfas, 2012). The Expert Group is made up of FAS' Skills and Labour Market Unit (SLMU), and the Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI). The *National Qualifications Authority of Ireland* (NQAI) has responsibility for developing and maintaining qualification standards covering for all awards from initial schooling to further education and training through the National Framework of Qualifications. NQAI is an agency of the Department of Education and Skills and the Department of Enterprise, Trade and Innovation. NQAI decision-making organ is composed of 9 members including representatives of the government, Irish Business and Employers Confederation, Irish Congress of Trade Unions, Higher Education and Training Awards Council, and Further education and Training Awards Council. 33 *Vocational Educational Committees* – the statutory local authorities that run vocational schools/centres in 27 counties and in urban areas across the country; VECs have administrative responsibility over publicly-funded VET programmes/courses including the Youthreach programmes. The Youthreach programme is operated regionally by FAS. Schools have the responsibility for students' learning arrangement – they have responsibility for offering and delivering IVET courses/programmes.

Characterisations of formal feedback loop

Assessing Demand

The Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI) and FAS, the National Training and Employment Authority, are leaders in Ireland in forecasting labour market skills demand and anticipation. The forecast provides an indication of how the occupational composition of the workforce would change via-a-vis a change in the performance of global and domestic economy over a medium term (Behan & Shally, 2010). The forecast identify likely developments in the labour market at occupational level, point to the likely change in skills requirements of the economy over a medium term, then use the output to inform policies on education and training and the labour market. The forecasting method used is based on a specially designed ESRI macro-economic model of 10 economic sectors. These sectoral economic

forecasts are then disaggregated into ESRI/FAS sectors which are then used as a basis for projecting 20 more detailed employment sub sectors. The latter process is repeated and used to make employment forecast in 43 occupations. The third layer of the forecast relates to occupational employment forecast by education level and occupational employment forecast by gender. A periodic report *Manpower forecasting* is published jointly by ESRI and FAS. The primary purpose of the *Manpower forecasting series* is to make detailed forecasts for the sectoral and occupational structure of the Irish labour market over the medium term, to inform education and training, the labour market and career guidance advisor.

Occupational standards

The Expert Group on Future Skills Needs (EGFSN) which advises the Government on current and future skills needs of the economy, make use of the research on the labour market needs for skilled workers published jointly by FAS, the National Training and Employment Authority, the Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI). The government, through the State Examinations Commission (SEC), ensures that research on skills requirements feed into IVET curriculum delivery and assessment at upper secondary school programmes such as LCAP and LCAP. The National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA) carries out a rolling review of the syllabi for Leaving Certificate subjects and new subjects including vocational subjects are being added to meet learners' need.

National qualification structure feedback loop

The National Framework of Qualifications (NFQ) operates a single structure mechanism for recognising – including co-ordinating and comparing – all education and training awards. The framework facilitates progression and mobility for all learners. The NFQ is also a system of ten levels, covering all awards – from compulsory schooling, further training to university education up to doctorate degrees: For example, the State develops school curricula which forms the basis of second level secondary school qualifications such as LCVP and LCAP; and representatives of the social partners and FAS input into/determine other second level qualifications awarded to youngsters who have successfully completed the apprenticeship scheme.

Curriculum development

The State through the Minister for Education and Skills centrally determines school curriculum. In practice the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment advises the Minister on matters relating to curriculum development. Although the national curriculum sets out what is to be taught and how the particular subject is to be taught and assessed, each school adds its own particular character to it. For example, a school can adapt the curriculum to suite its own needs and could also determine the learning materials or text books to be used for learning. At upper secondary level, learners are prepared for LCP, LCVP and LCAP. Although the curriculum is set nationally, any school that intends to participate in LCVP will be required to state its reasons for wanting to participate in the programme, as well as what the programme aims, objectives and outcomes would be. Representatives of

the social partners and government (through FAS) determine and approve curricula for those on apprentices.

Variations of feedback mechanisms at the regional/local level

The National Training and Employment Authority, FAS' Employment Services operate in all the 8 regions of the country through a regional and local network of 66 offices and 20 training centres across Ireland. The Employment Services match information on demand and supply in the labour market at occupational, local and regional levels through its recruitment service to jobseekers and employers and also through its support and advisory service for industry and community enterprises providing information on skills and competences on new entrants into the labour market. Employers have a legal obligation to report vacancies as they arise to the Employment Services which then match jobseekers to reported vacancies.

The government has responded to the current economic recession in a number of ways including the use of EGFSN and FAS facilities – initiatives based on occupational needs are common in certain regions and local areas. For example, in terms of unemployment, the current recession has affected craftspeople and manual workers the most – currently more than 25% of the people in this sector are unemployed, compared with less than 5% for professional occupation (Refnet, 2010). FAS has worked with large employers to minimise the impact of redundancies on this category of workers (the agency has agreements with a number of large companies in the sector to increase the number of the apprentices). Additional training and employment opportunities were developed to ensure that those who have been made redundant are re-skilled to facilitate their return to the labour market. FAS has also reviewed its training requirements to ensure that its provision respond adequately to the need of the labour market during recession. Those recently made redundant were also offered enhanced Technical Employment Support Grant (TESG) to speed up their re-entry into the labour market. The grant is a short term financial assistance designed to help with job search but could also be used for short term training. FESG is also targeted at those unemployed people facing acute difficulties in entering or re-entering the labour market. To help people with low skills that were recently made redundant back into work, the government has increased places on the FAS evening courses.

Interaction of feedback mechanisms with institutional settings

The National Partnership Agreements which involves the government and social partners also applied regionally and locally. The current agreement – *Towards 2016* – which was drawn up in 2009 applies to local and regional industrial and occupational situations. Both the government and the social partners agreed on social and economic developments including policies on pay, education and training. They also agreed on the need to raise the level of workplace learning as a response to the current economic recession in Ireland. The National Training Fund (NTF) provides another forum for government and social partners through which VET provision in Ireland is shaped. The NTF forum ensures that the social partners – employers and trade unions – are consulted on fund allocations for skills training particularly for the employed. Members of the trade unions as do members of the

Irish Business and Employers Confederation and Irish Small and Medium-sized Enterprises and Construction Industry Federation across the country receive financial incentives to engage in training courses and programme to improve their skills and competences. This is in addition to training that these organisations provided to their members. Irish Congress of Trade Unions, for instance, works with the adult education provider, People's College, to offer non job-related training – including basic education and personal development – to members. The congress also operates a network of training centres specifically for unemployed workers seeking to re-train or to up-grade their skills.

Conclusion

Ireland faces a most severe economic recession in a generation. Part of the Government response, as set out its National Reform Programme includes: articulating how Ireland intends to achieve a sustainable high level of employment, adequate supply of labour to meet the demand of the economy, as well as a national effort to improve education and training; increasing progression of and the expansion of Post Leaving Certificate for secondary school leavers who might want to progress into third-level (higher education) VET programme; a legal requirement that all VET programmes must have provision for access, transfer and mobility; the establishment of the Expert Group on Future Skills Needs (EGFSN) to advise the Government and current and future needs to the economy. The EGFSN works with FAS, the National Training Authority. FAS provides Employment Services that match information on demand and supply in the labour market at occupational, local and regional levels. Employers report vacancies to FAS which are then matched with vacancies in its database; *action Plans for Jobs* aimed to get 100,000 unemployed people into work by 2014 and 2 million people into work by the year 2020; the development of new VET provision to respond to sectoral or occupational new skills demand identified in the labour market, particularly in science and technology education – for example, FAS has developed new curricula and introduced new training programmes in a number of industries and sectors including Bio-Pharmaceutical industry, the Sustainable Energy sector and the Financial Services sector.

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AT THE INTERSECTIONS OF RESISTANCE: TURKISH IMMIGRANT WOMEN IN GERMAN SCHOOLS

Abstract

This paper focuses on two main guiding questions: first, what are the experiences of Turkish women in the German educational system; second, to what extent do state policies, cultural pressure, and personal choice influence the decision to pursue higher education? Using intersectionality as a methodology, this paper elucidates how women navigate the educational system to reduce educational and social marginalization. These main topics are explored through document and cultural artifact analysis and semi-structured interviews with women of Turkish descent in Berlin. Results of this study reveal that, far from the reductionist view often held of the Turkish female population in Germany, which places them as victims of an oppressive and traditionally patriarchal culture, each woman provided unique perspectives on educational achievement, gendered family dynamics, and their self-identification.

Introduction

In the early 1960s we brought the guest workers to Germany. Now they're living with us. ... Of course the multicultural approach -- living side by side, being happy with each other -- this approach has failed, utterly. (Merkel, in Helmy, 2010, para. 2)

Angela Merkel's 2010 speech to members of her conservative Christian Democrat party (CDU) highlights the tenuous relationship with cultural differences in Germany society which the government continues to have, despite the Turkish population having been in Germany for more than 50 years. In 1998, over ten years before Merkel's speech, when the country was precariously perched on the threshold of new citizenship laws, Zafer Şenocak, a popular writer of Turkish descent, offered reflections on the state of Turkish-German relations in an article entitled "Aber das Herz schlägt noch türkisch" ("But the heart still beats Turkish"):

Even after forty years of continuous immigration, Germany still clings to the illusion that it's not an immigration country, that the multicultural society is a condition that one can magically vanish with a few pithy slogans...Germans and Turks in Germany have come closer to each other than people think. All the problems that are currently associated with the failure of multicultural society have to do with this closeness and with the realization that this closeness is not necessarily accompanied by the disappearance and assimilation of all that is foreign. (Şenocak, 1998, p. 1)

While Merkel asserts integration attempts under an agenda of multiculturalism have failed in large part because of immigrants' reluctance to adapt to and adopt German culture and values, Şenocak states that the nation cannot both maintain its stance of being a non-immigration country and attempt to adopt the philosophy of

multiculturalism. The tension between these perspectives underscores the ambivalence of the nation-state towards their minority populations and illuminates the marked silence of the Turkish women's voices that are excluded from these conversations.

The absence of women of Turkish descent within the German context is apparent not just in the academic literature but also the highly-regimented and tracked German educational system. Although more than 50 years after the arrival of the first Turkish guest worker, educational inequality continues to be rampant, with rates of second-generation immigrants as low as 3.3% in German universities (Schittenhelm, 2009). Often the higher education training females of Turkish descent receive is through vocational training, which itself is highly-gendered and tracks women into jobs that have a high risk of unemployment and are vulnerable to market trends. While the government, through its 2005 Immigration and Integration Law, has officially taken the stance that it is the onus of the immigrant to integrate by learning German and by parents enforcing the importance of education for their children, others maintain that Germany's program is one of assimilation rather than integration and that the educational underachievement is due to structural deficiencies, not the deficiencies of the immigrant population.

Method and Methodology

Guided by these tensions, this research has two main foci: first, the ways in which Turkish women's educational experiences were guided by (positively or negatively) personal choice, cultural pressures, and educational policies and immigration laws that were passed at the state and national level, and second, if an analysis of documents and cultural artifacts parallel or diverge from the individual narratives. Framed by intersectionality as the methodology, this paper explores overlapping categories of identity to examine the ways in which gender, ethnicity, culture, immigrant status, and religion converge in particular ways to influence women's educational attainment. Intersectionality as methodology enables an examination of the interplay between multiple categories of identity which work to construct particular experiences. Here, the use of intersectionality in also takes social, historical, and political contexts into account, offering a more textured analysis of the lived experiences of Turkish women in the German educational system.

In-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with five women who were connected to two different women's organizations in Berlin. Four of the women were of Turkish descent and had at least one parent who identified as a guest worker. I identified Fatma, a social worker and the first woman I interviewed, as an informal gatekeeper; once I conducted my initial interview with her, she contacted a number of other women within her association and at other organizations in Berlin to invite them to participate in the study. The interviews illuminate how macro structures and policies have affected educational achievement and analyses of educational policies, newspaper articles, election campaign platforms, and Turkish hip-hop and poetry provide a triangulation and a contextualization of women's individual accounts.

Discussion of Findings

While research on the educational inequalities within the German educational system is extensive, little data and academic research exists on the ways in which this affects women of Turkish descent or their navigation of the educational system (Alba et al., 1998; Auernheimer, 2006; Crul & Schneider, 2009; von Below, 1997). Four emerging themes were identified from the women's interview data: laying claims to belonging; the use and significance of language; retrospective attitudes toward educational experiences; and gendered cultural identity. Each woman spoke to these themes in unique ways, revealing their educational experiences counter the dominant narrative of Turkish immigrant women as 'reluctant immigrants'. Through their emphasis on the importance of education and language acquisition, their self-identification which pushes the boundaries of citizenship and the nation-state, and the how they make sense of their own educational attainment, these women present direct contradictions to the discourse that faults immigrant for the failure of the multicultural project in Germany.

The Turkish immigrant women interviewed regarded education and German language acquisition as an integral and vital part of their and their children's economic and social advancement in Germany. This extends previous qualitative studies conducted with immigrant women in Germany which found that education was viewed as central to their success; however, the women also confronted extremely difficult roadblocks to attaining the education they wanted (Erel, 2003; Mandel, 2008; Schittenhelm, 2009). Although Fatma, who came to Berlin to attend college and become a social worker, indicated she and her father had constant struggles due to her insistence on pursuing and completing her university education rather than joining him in Germany with the goal of finding immediate work, she and the other women indicated financial, emotional, and practical support from their parents and siblings.

The critiques of educational achievement fell largely on the German educational system which, because of the women's immigrant status or language capabilities, tracked them into lower educational tracks with little opportunity for advancement or placed them in Turkish-German schools where the teachers were from Turkey and the entire school population consisted of the children of Turkish guest workers, paralleling existing literature regarding the German educational system's function as a sorting mechanism to maintain the educational status quo (Auernheimer, 2006; Duru-Bellat et al., 2008; Faas, 2008). Lale's, the child of two guest workers, educational narrative speaks to discrepancies between official discourse which places the onus on the individual immigrant and what is occurring at the individual level:

They always say, both in school and in politics, regardless of whatever topic they're discussing, 'the parents, the parents, the parents' are bad or they're migrant children and that's why, but [my experiences] can't confirm that! I was here, and my parents could read, write, etc, but I was in Turkey with my grandparents and they couldn't read, write, or speak [Turkish]. Despite this, I always received very good grades. I believe that school is more important than where one's family comes from. And that [what is said in schools and politics] is false and it stinks a little of racism.

This quote exemplifies the complexities of the relationship between educational policies which target immigrant children, official discourse about the state of immigrant children in German schools, and the individual experience of the daughter of a Turkish guest worker who, despite being a non-native speaker and being placed on a non-university track, still achieves a university education. Lale's experiences parallel other accounts from Turkish women in the German educational system and exemplify the need for an intersectionality approach to adequately identify and describe the ways in which state structures both maintain and construct power relations even at the level of the individual student (Mandel, 2008; Schittenhelm, 2008).

Limitations and Trends for Future Research

This research provides preliminary evidence that Turkish women's individual educational experiences counter the commonly-held conception of the Turkish woman as the 'reluctant immigrant' who refuses to learn German or further her educational attainment. These women's narratives reveal active participation within the educational system and an emphasis on educational attainment and language acquisition which spans at multiple generations. Limitations include a small number of participants and the short time in the field. These aspects have limited the research, but should be seen as opportunities for future lines of inquiry, particularly how this approach can be used with immigrant populations in other contexts; additionally, because this is the first time this line of inquiry has been taken up specifically through an intersectionality approach, the direction of this research can be used as a guide for future projects.

While I chose to employ in-depth interviews with a small group of women to adequately capture the individual effects of educational policies, the women I interviewed were connected to organizations which worked to empower immigrant female populations in Berlin; this connection to organizations which celebrate women's heritage and work to increase self-esteem played a role in the kinds of experiences these women had. Children of guest workers born in and educated in Turkey, the Turkish women (excluding Yeşim) occupied a unique status as the 1 ½ immigrant generation. Having received education in both Turkey and Germany, this 'in-between' generation can offer a comparative educational reflection in ways which guest workers and children born in Germany cannot. Including participants with these traits will enable the researcher to more fully examine the intersections of ethnicity, social class, gender, and immigrant status (Mahalingam et al., 2008).

Three significant trends emerged from the interview data which also point to future paths for continuing research with the Turkish women's population in Germany. First, there was a positive correlation between women's educational attainment and their level of dissatisfaction with the educational system, such that the higher the level of education completed by the women, the more likely they were to critique both their own experiences and the current state of the educational system in regards to students of migrant background. Contrary to my expectation that women who had achieved higher educational attainment would be more invested in the system and thus have a more positive outlook towards Germany's education, I found the opposite to be true. Future research should consider whether longer exposure to the inequalities in the German educational system is correlated to the

women's dissatisfaction and resistance. Institutes of higher education, including resources offered to Turkish and other minority students, should be examined to trace possible links between the women's dissatisfaction and the ways in which the universities constructed their educational experiences.

Second, each woman made explicit the ways in which educational attainment and language acquisition were linked cross-generationally, not just between themselves and their children but also between their own parents and siblings. This cross-generational linkage is worthy of note for two reasons: first, the women I interviewed indicated their parents were largely uneducated, with many of them completing their formal schooling in Turkey before the sixth grade; and second, the women indicated that the motivation to pursue German language acquisition and higher education did not stem from their experiences in Germany but rather from Turkey. Future research should include in-depth interviews with different generations of women within families to trace this trend and more fully describe the ways in which it plays a role in the educational attainment of Turkish women in German schools.

The third unexplored trend to emerge from this dissertation involves the central role of the organizations in the lives of the women I interviewed. While most of the women I spoke with worked within the respective organizations in some capacity (providing social services, tutoring assistance, and general administrative services), some had been connected to similar organizations while they were still in school. According to Erel (2003), women's roles within their communities are often constructed around their identities as mothers and wives, thus only "in relation to and depending on men" (p. 160). Organizations which cater exclusively to the female population, such as the two I worked with in Berlin, force a reimagining of the gendered constructions of identity and stretch the common conception of an ethnicized female immigrant. Educated female role models of similar cultural backgrounds could provide young students with motivation to pursue higher education; further research could support this hypothesis.

Conclusion

What factors have led to the educational attainment of Turkish immigrant women in the German educational system and how have they navigated the socially-constructed categories of Turkishness and Germanness? These women's individual definitions of belonging, significance they place on language acquisition and education, and their gendered cultural identity dispel the dominant classification of Turkish women as reluctant immigrants who maintain social, cultural, and educational distance from German society. Far from the reductionist view often held of the Turkish female population in Germany, which places them as victims of an oppressive and traditionally patriarchal culture, each woman provided unique perspectives on educational achievement, gendered family dynamics, and their self-identification (Erel, 2003). Taken holistically, the findings in this research provide a critical lens into the complex and often misunderstood educational experiences of Turkish immigrant women in Germany.

The results are not simply about affirming Turkish women's continued underrepresentation in the German educational system; rather, they engage women's voices to reveal the outcomes of their educational situations and foster of an

understanding of their particular ways each woman constructed a unique agency to combat the imposition of identity. The most important result to emerge from the data is that the women themselves never identifies as oppressed or victimized; surprisingly, those who expressed frustration with the system and who offered the most critique were the women who had completed a university education. Although the women who had finished formal schooling in 10th grade were less critical of the educational system, they surprised me with the amount of agency they held. Yeşim felt empowered by her assertion that she and her family were successfully socially integrated into German society, while Ayşe's sense of agency within her Turkish community was directly connected to the work she did with the Turkish women's organization. While I expected the women with whom I spoke to feel largely isolated, marginalized, and hesitant to identify in any way with the Berliner society, each woman expressed her sense of belonging as being explicitly tied to being a particular type of Berliner, a kind of hybrid self-reclamation of identity far from the idea of the Turkish woman as a reluctant immigrant.

In the end, this dissertation issues a challenge to those who pursue research with populations who have been traditionally underrepresented (and misrepresented) by the dominant discourse in their society and by academic discussions which render such populations one-dimensional and static. An approach which includes voices that have been silenced is critical to both understanding the complexities of the issues and seeking to change them. This challenge can be felt in the women's words below:

With our work we are building bridges between the female migrants and German society. We overcome barriers that impede our access to our rights and to regular services... and they make it clear that here in Berlin there are too few migrant- and women-specific facilities and services! (Forum Berliner Migrantinnen Projekte, 2009, p. 31)

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AIRITA BRENCA & AIJA GRAVITE**INTELLECTUAL CAPITAL IMPORT FOR THE BENEFIT OF HIGHER EDUCATION****Abstract**

The article explores the role of intellectual capital in the development of higher education system. The description of economic and marketing values of intellectual capital demonstrates its importance for an institution's establishing in education market. Import and export of intellectual capital is a reality of globalisation processes, and it is considered to be of great importance in the economy of a knowledge society. However, its accounting does not allow to evaluate qualitative changes in higher education system. A research in the recent history of Latvian higher education after regaining of independence gave us an opportunity to discover: what were the patterns of importing the intellectual capital; what were the elements of change, or new beginnings generated by imported intellectual capital; and how sustainable were these changes and beginnings.

Introduction

Intellectual capital is the amount of individual or collective knowledge which can be used to create other forms of capital or increase their value. In higher education it determines the competitiveness of higher education institutions. The intellectual capital is comprised of non-material values which secure vitality and uniqueness of the institution.

Higher education establishments sell a product (the degree to be earned) and services (teaching and learning, socialising, goods sold on campus) as accessories developed to increase its expected and true value. If the quality of services is increased - the quality of education product itself is higher evaluated by the client. The degree earned can be considered a token of documented study experience at this particular higher education establishment, which in turn allows the higher education establishment to look forward to a positive cooperation with the graduate in future (by getting other potential students interested in enjoying an identical experience etc.). Students are the outcome of education and at the same time they are consumers of education as a product. These clients demand a good price, a good value to be gained and a good product in terms of the study experience. For this reason it is crucially important to provide an appropriate level of intellectual capital in the higher education institution where its human capital is being ceaselessly maintained both by achieving personal development and securing development and introduction of innovations in the area of arts or sciences represented.

Economic characteristics of intellectual capital

Already some time ago the classical economists (Schumpeter, 1943) concluded that innovation is not just an important phenomenon but the primary driver of economic growth. Competitiveness of an economy is characterised mainly by two factors: the technological level and the qualifications of personnel, which determine

productivity and quality of the product as well as costs. Development and reproduction of the innovative environment is determined by the triangle: education – science – economy. The intellectual capital strategy (ICS) secures a regular, effective and systematic exploration, management and assessment of intellectual capital.

The overall development strategy of the higher education institution is effective provided that it is developed based on the interplay of its business plan, ICS and marketing plan. Traditionally human capital, structural capital and relationship capital are seen as the components of the intellectual capital (Stewart, 1998). The human capital in the higher education establishment is knowledge which its human resources (academic and administrative personnel) have; the structural capital is knowledge which remains within the higher education establishment irrespective of turnover of human capital (legally secured intellectual property, data bases, system, procedures, organisational chart etc.); the relationship capital comprises resources of external relationships which involve the higher education establishment in various ways (internal and external clients; parents of students, sponsors, cooperation partners, state and non-government organisations etc.)

It has to be recognised that the evaluation of intellectual capital is insufficiently incorporated in the academic management of higher education establishments and also – a unified model of intellectual capital has not been created for the purposes of practical application. This is not a simple task as evaluation criteria for the intangible assets are more difficult to develop and quantify for the balance sheet than those for tangible assets. Although human resource accounting has been put forward already in 1960's (Hermansson, 1964; Brummet, Flamholtz & Pyle, 1968) the old understanding of accounting and money has to be upgraded through adding new content (e.g. Yeh-Yu-Lin & Edvinsson, 2010).

Higher education and research in Latvia after regaining of independence

After 50 years of Soviet occupation Latvia's independence was restored in 1991, radically changing all walks of life, including the education. Back then the foundation was laid for what today is Latvia's education system. The legislation acts – Law on Education and Law on Entrepreneurship – ensured the implementation of two key principles that changed higher education radically: academic freedom and private initiative and funding of education.

At the same time there was a sharp decline in R&D. While in 1990 this field employed 2,2% of the Latvia's entire workforce, it was only 0,5% after 1994. This decrease has occurred mainly due to the elimination of the so-called branch institutes of Soviet Academy of Sciences. Employees of these institutes were either forced to leave research work or left by themselves. Many of them took the opportunity to switch to another better-paid job, e.g., in the state administration institutions etc. A number of scientists established their own companies. A sizeable number of scientists from Latvia work abroad. According to a rough estimation it is 1/3 of the country's scientific potential and for both 1990s and 2008 the number of Latvian scientists who have moved to work in other countries stands at about 1000.

On the other hand, transition to market economy brought rapid changes in labour market: large soviet industrial enterprises had to wind down and the associated vocational schools stood unable to provide any training with reasonable

application. The number of simple jobs suited for upper secondary school graduates with no additional training decreased and new areas of social-economic activities related to the existence of independent state and democratic society emerged, generating demand for new fields of education.

During the transition period Latvian academic society was concerned about the damage done to the science by fifty years of isolation from the world's scientific thoughts and research progress. In these circumstances the import of intellectual capital was considered to be the quickest way to raise the level of Latvian research and academic standards to a competitive global level. The re-establishing of contacts with Western academics as quick as possible was of great importance, and Latvian academic society was fortunate to have a strong supportive agency in Western countries – Latvian academic diaspora (Abens & Gravite, 2012).

The Soviet occupation of the Baltic States in 1940, the Second World War and Stalin's deportations in the 1940s and 1950s destroyed Latvian academic society: hundreds of university professors were fired, died in concentration camps of both fascist and communist regimes, or emigrated to save their lives. As a result of these turbulent events the Latvian academic diaspora began to emerge in the Western Europe, the Americas and Australia. There were little, or no professional contacts between the academic society in Soviet Latvia and Latvian academics abroad until the mid-1980s. Initial changes occurred as a result of Gorbachev's glasnost and perestroika when the political thaw made contacts between Western and local Latvian scientists and academics possible once again.

Intellectual capital import in Latvian higher education

The quantitative description of the import and export of intellectual capital does not provide sufficient grounds to evaluate the impact of these processes on the sustainable development of higher education itself. An assessment of qualitative changes in higher education system caused by the import of intellectual capital might give us more clear picture. The recent history of Latvian higher education gives us an opportunity to discover: what were the patterns of importing the intellectual capital; what were the elements of change, or new beginnings generated by imported intellectual capital; and how sustainable they were.

Two sources were used in order to determine how the first contacts between Latvian scientists in Latvia and abroad were initiated and maintained, who initiated them, what was the nature of the first activities and what was the impact of these activities on Latvian higher education: newspaper articles and oral testimonies of participants.

The official position and direction of the activities initiated by Latvian academia is clearly defined in the newsletter of Union of Latvian Scientists – *Zinātnes Vēstnesis* [Scientific Courier]. The National Awakening began in 1988, and the Union of Latvian Scientists was one of the public and professional organizations established to support the country's road to independence. The newsletter was usually published monthly and contained quite accurate descriptions of the activities of the Union of Latvian Scientists: transcripts of discussions, business trip reports, work plans and initiatives for cooperation with foreign scientists and organizations. Partner institutions and organizations, as well as individuals involved in establishing contacts with Western academic societies were mentioned, signed and planned

agreements described. Also problems, such as language barriers and financial obstacles, are described in the articles.

In addition eight members of the Latvian academic diaspora were interviewed. The interviewees represented different academic areas – linguistics, military, psychology, theology, political science, communications and education sciences. They were involved in academic activities and education policy-making in Latvia during the transition period. The interviewees were asked to describe the type and nature of first professional contacts with Latvian academic society, their role in developing Latvian higher education system in 1990s, and to give a self-evaluation of the results of their activities. Also four Latvian academics, who collaborated with Western academics in 1990s were also interviewed about activities during this time.

Findings

Several organizations established and maintained contacts between Latvian academics across the borders during this time. In Latvia the Union of Latvian Scientists was the most active. It was founded under the auspices of the Latvian Academy of Sciences, which at the time was subordinate to and financed by the USSR Academy of Sciences. Regular business trips to Moscow were held to report on activities and to receive permission and funds to proceed with new initiatives.

The Union of Latvian Scientists founded two other organisations. The scientific association *Latvia and Latvians in the World* was founded specifically to gather information and maintain contacts with the academic diaspora. The *Fund for Young Latvian Scientists* was established to raise funds to help finance periods of study or internships abroad. This was especially crucial after the flow of money coming from the USSR Academy of Sciences was cut off.

During the first years of collaboration the support of changes in Latvian academic life from the academic diaspora was mainly consultative. The common form of using their intellectual capital was guest lectures, seminars and workshops held by Western academics. They also actively were involved in organisation of the First World Congress of Latvian Scientists which was seen as a culmination of cooperation at that time. After 1991 several diaspora academics decided to return to Latvia and establish their academic career in their motherland. Four participants of current research were amongst them.

The ease of cooperation differed depending on the academic field. Diaspora academics referred to full support of their activities from local academics in natural sciences, theology, sociology, military sciences, clinical psychology. The experience in the humanities, however, is described almost exclusively in negative terms stressing scepticism and fear of competition on the part of the local academics.

The most substantial results of collaboration were reflected in the founding of new research departments and study programmes – sociology, psychology, military, theology and ecology. Thus one of the leading Latvian scientists Elmars Grens noted: “Scientifically grounded sociological research would debunk quite a few illusions cultivated in various social circles, would deter some from taking the floor ‘on behalf of the entire nation’ and voicing their interests in an inappropriate manner.” (Grens, 1989, p. 3). Professor Cimdins recalled the fruitful trip to the US and Canada that resulted in support from diaspora scientists, who funded the first laboratory for ecological research at the University of Latvia. One of the

interviewees stressed out the importance of founding the National Defence Academy in the process of establishing independent Latvia's defence system and joining NATO.

Both newsletter and interviews showed a distinct tendency to encourage young Latvian researchers to leave the country and gain experience abroad instead of starting something new in Latvia. This was considered to be the quickest way to raise the level of Latvian research to a competitive global level. The newsletter allowed to track down the names of first 17 post-graduate students and young researchers who had the opportunity to go abroad. Most of them represented natural sciences, medicine and finance, and there were no representatives from humanities. Some of young researchers sent abroad have returned to work in their field in Latvia, but others have remained abroad and form a new Latvian academic diaspora.

Conclusions

Four ways of importing the intellectual capital were mainly used in Latvia to secure the qualitative development of higher education during and after regaining of independence: the participation of Latvian academics in scientific conferences, the guest lectures and seminars of Western academics, the involvement of Latvian diaspora academics in establishing new study fields and programmes, and study and internship periods abroad.

Latvian academic diaspora played a significant role to secure success of transforming the higher education and academic standards in Latvia.

The import of the intellectual capital in early 1990s allowed to establish new fields of research and study programmes that were essential for an independent country at that time and still serve the democratic society and enrich the offer of Latvian higher education market. The re-engaging of Latvian academics with international scientific community and introducing it to the younger generation brought new knowledge, research methodologies and study methods that still are used and developed in Latvian universities. The understanding of importance of diversity and academic freedom injected back then changed the system of values of Latvian academic society.

The import of intellectual capital is not implemented by residents only: it can be brought also by diaspora or foreign academics. Therefore the definition of the intellectual capital import needs to be reconsidered.

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LESSONS FROM THE TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR WOMEN WITH DOMESTIC VIOLENCE EXPERIENCE

Abstract

It is well recognized that trauma of domestic violence has destructive impact on somatic and mental health – hence quality of life. In Poland today's assistance programs provide a quite wide range of services, including emergency shelter, crisis intervention, support groups and counselling services. While health care providers may be successful at treating the acute effects of domestic violence, these effects are not sufficiently linked to the restoration of victims' wellness and reestablishment of their connections with the community – hence social inclusion. The aim of this paper is to share with academics and mental health practitioners the experience of developing and piloting training programme for women with domestic violence experience. The objective of this descriptive study is to investigate participants' reaction to the intervention "Living better with the experience of domestic violence and mental health difficulties". The training was developed during the DAPHNE III Empowering W♀ project, and conducted in five countries: Greece, Italy, Slovenia, Poland, and United Kingdom. In Warsaw there were five hours workshops twice a month over sixteen weeks with six subsequent refresher sessions conducted once a month. The participants found it to be a very positive experience: effective and supportive. These results need replication and further work to identify what were the preconditions for making it such a worthwhile experience and how this could be replicated on a wider basis.

Introduction

...The [violence] victims want: the restoration of their honour and reestablishment of their own connections with the community... (Herman, 2005, p. 585).

Domestic violence has been recognized as one of the most serious and widespread public health issues facing women that occurs in every culture and social group (Daoud et al., 2012; Garcia-Moreno et al., 2006; Gracia, 2004; Herman, 2005). In 2004, in Poland the survey was carried out as the International Violence Against Women Study (IVAWS). The national sample of 2009 randomly selected women between 18 and 69 years of age was interviewed by face-to-face contact. Over 1/3 of women have been subjected to physical, sexual or both types of violence during their life. The most frequent type of violence against women in Poland was physical violence. In many cases it was accompanied by sexual violence. The overall indicator of victimization in Polish survey of violence against women amounts to about 35% for lifetime, 17% in a five-year period and 6% for a 1-year period (Gruszczyńska, 2007, p. 3-4). The unsatisfactory police services interventions (as stated by responders) – contribute to the recurring victimization of women and is the serious barrier to overcome their trauma. According to The Public Opinion Research Centre (2010) – research and marketing information company in Poland –

the domestic violence victims in 61% are women. They are victims of sexual violence in 90%, physical violence in 63%, psychic violence in 64% and economic violence in 70%. More than half responders (60%) know in their surrounding at least one family in which there was a violence against women. The authors of the survey emphasize that the data is underestimated.

Abuse has devastating physical and psychological consequences for women – the “symptoms of abuse” (Humphreys & Thiara, 2003), the “battered woman syndrome” (Walker, 1991). The victims face post traumatic stress disorders (PTSD), depression, anxiety, phobias, current harmful alcohol consumption and psychoactive drug dependence (Coid et al., 2003; Fischbach & Herbert, 1997; Humphreys & Joseph, 2004; Roberts et al., 1998). They often report: low self esteem (Shields & Hanneke, 1983), low self efficacy often seen as learned helplessness (Walker, 1989), difficulties in dealing with negative emotions (Hajdo, 2007).

In Poland today’s programs for victims provide a range of services, including emergency shelter, crisis intervention, support groups, counseling services. While health care providers may be successful at treating the acute effects of domestic violence, these effects are not sufficiently linked to the restoration of victims’ wellness and reestablishment of their connections with the community – hence social inclusion. In this context the promising solution in assisting women with domestic violence experience seems to be training intervention based on lifelong learning, recovery and empowerment paradigm. Group work addresses all traumatic experiences levels – individual, organizational and social. It equips the individual with an instrument of self-determination, provides competency awareness and strengthens self-esteem. Sometimes it triggers the decision of disclosure which might be a starting point to abandon abusive relationship. Being a training group member one can learn from each other, give and gain support, exchange information and share experiences.

Lifelong learning, recovery and empowerment

Lifelong learning is the development of human potential through a supportive process which stimulates and empowers individuals to acquire all the knowledge, skills, values and understanding they will need throughout their lifetimes and to apply them with confidence, creativity and enjoyment in all roles, circumstances and environments (Longworth, 1999, p. 2).

Recovery can be defined in many different ways but one approach is to see it as a process of individual discovery, encouraging hope and formulating realistic goals. According to Farcas (2007) recovery is a non-linear, multidimensional, individualized process that reach beyond symptom reduction. In recovery narratives people describe the following experiences: it is the reawakening of hope after despair, it is breaking through denial and achieving understanding and acceptance; it is moving from withdrawal to engagement and active participation in life; it is active coping rather than passive adjustment; it is moving from alienation to a sense of meaning and purpose, it is not accomplished alone – the journey involves support and partnership (Ridgway, 2001). The fundamental goals of the recovery movement are: the re-establishment of normal roles in the community, the developments of a

personal support network and an increased quality of life. The idea of learning and empowerment facilitate the process.

The idea of Personal Recovery Plan originated as well as from the increased attention paid to the assessment of clients' personal construct systems and meanings (Lyddon et al., 2006; Van Geel & De Mey, 2004) as well as from Personal Development Plan (PDP) – the tool derived from management and education to help people to clarify what and when to change. Working on personal recovery plan is hopeful, meaningful, self-determined and empowering exercise. It supports the recognition that recovery is about moving forwards rather than returning to a place before the crisis occurred (Anczewska et al., 2009).

The Wellness Recovery Action Plan – WRAP (Copeland, 1997) is an evidence-based system that is used world-wide by people who are dealing with mental health and other kinds of health challenges and by people who want to attain the highest possible level of wellness. It was developed by a group of people who have a lived experience of mental health difficulties and wanted to work on their own recovery; people who were searching for ways to resolve issues that had been troubling them for a long time. WRAP involves listing personal resources, Wellness Tools and then using those resources to develop Action Plans to use in specific situations which are individually determined. Using WRAP as a framework people can develop an effective approach to overcoming distressing symptoms and dysfunctional behavior patterns.

Empowerment is a term broadly used across the disciplines of sociology, psychology, politics, education, service administration and health promotion. It encompasses a number of phenomena which might be related to: changing the social perception of domestic violence victims, reforming the operations and rationale of their care and social welfare, changing the intra-psychic and behavioural dimensions of women themselves.

The training process and structure

The training was developed during the DAPHNE III Empowering W_♀ project and conducted in five countries: Greece, Italy, Slovenia, Poland, and United Kingdom.

In Warsaw (Poland), women with domestic violence experiences were contacted through emergency shelter “DOM”. The decision to participate in the training was strictly voluntary, based upon the information provided by the shelter team. The only exclusion criteria were as follow: acute crisis and work place violence experience.

The training “Living better with the experience of domestic violence and mental health difficulties” prioritise a “three-fold concept”: sensitivity and awareness, knowledge and understanding, individual practice. The training process took place over sixteen weeks with six subsequent refresher sessions once a month. There was an emphasis on developing personal strengths and coping skills. A Personal Recovery Plan as well as Wellness Recovery Action Plan was part of the *curriculum*.

Each teaching session lasted about five hours with short breaks. The teaching sessions were organised on two Saturdays monthly in order to not interfere with participants occupational and family duties. The module was designed to be

delivered in eight sequences with the exercises: *In what kind of the group I would like to be? In what kind of the group I would dislike to be? Emotions' dealing, Big Wind Blows in specific: focus on strengths, My Personal Recovery Plan, Finish the sentence: I admire other people, because they..., The Way to My Goal, What helps me in my recovery? Wellness Recovery Action Plan, Breathing and Imaginary Technique, Autogenic Training, Progressive Muscles Relaxation, Making the Thought-Mood Connection, Two Column Technique – good and bad sides of anger, Managing Anger, Using Imagery in Working with Anger, Responsibility Pie, Power and Control Wheel, Safety Planning, How assertive am I? What are the benefits of assertiveness? My rights and boundaries.*

Participants

23 women were recruited to participate in the training.

The mean age of the participants was 47 years. 15 women had higher education but only 8 were in full time employment. 11 women were married, 3 were divorced, 3 – separated and 1 was widowed. The mean number of children was 2. Women had been experiencing violence for 16 years on average.

Nearly 50% (11 out of 23 women) reported that good and satisfying relationships with friends and family are their major resources which help to support their wellness. 4 women mentioned physical activity to be of great use. More than 50% (13 women) were not able to list things they would like to try to support their wellness which may indicate that there is a call for guidance in this respect. For 5 participants faith in God was a source of sense of meaning or significance and inspiration, followed by children and family.

Participants' reactions to the training

Participants' expectations towards the training focused on new knowledge and skills. Examples included: to learn to be assertive, to cope with anger, to know my strength; to learn how to accept the situation and accept it; to learn self-confidence and sense of womanhood; to cope with my anxiety, to be assertive, to improve my self-esteem; to cope with stress, to improve self-esteem, to put aims and realize them, to take care of my needs; to be assertive and know how to put boundaries, to improve self-esteem, how to get rid of fear (people, shouts).

11 participants were interviewed during post training assessments. Only 1 person stated that she had gained little information, other women were satisfied with the amount of knowledge they learnt.

All of the participants, who took part in the sessions showed full engagement with the training. Women which during the first two sessions were laud, even hostile became calmer. Anxious and fearful women became more open. They underlined that talking of their strengths was helpful and made them feel good. The most problematic issue was identifying personal goals – participants were wondering why but no definite conclusion was made. Very diversified feelings and reactions were observed during relaxation training – new experience and doubts regarding this technique effectiveness. During the fourth, and the following sessions women shared: friendliness, thankfulness, gratitude and admiration to each other and facilitators. Majority of them demonstrated satisfaction, pride regarding

achievements and hope for the future. They stated they have lived in isolation and participating in the training let them build new relationships and rebuild the old ones. They discovered many similarities with others participants life situation and learn from each other. Majority of them noticed they needed to practice acquired knowledge and skills in everyday life.

Some examples of participants' views:

the most useful was to see how I have changed, self-evaluation regarding what I have done and what is in front of me; training on coping skills in crisis, relaxation – it helped me a lot, however I doubt it; I liked that we have "opened" ourselves; I have discover my anger! Thank you.

Some comments on refresher sessions:

they helped to work on several issues which we have been trained; occasions to have more contacts with so experienced and skillful professionals; they helped to recall me the training material; more supportive than I have expected; I didn't realise that this training will last so long, sometimes it was hard to organize the day to be present, but these "extra" sessions were very useful in regards farther development.

The least satisfactory aspects of the programme included deviations from the topic actually discussed and too long introductory session.

There seems little doubt that all the participants found this learning experience to be very positive – in most cases useful and inspiring. These results obviously need replication on the wider basis.

Considering that the programme is still in its very developmental phase, participants' opinions and suggestions regarding training's design and content were especially valuable. Two themes seem to be of great importance for the participants: to learn how to manage anger and how to help children who experience violence. As far as training's design is considered participants recommended that it should be longer and include not more than 10 trainees.

Conclusions

Domestic violence has been recognized as one of the most serious and widespread public health issues facing women that occurs in every culture and social group. Such an experience has destructive impact on somatic and mental health as well as on quality of life. In Poland today's assistance programs are mainly provided on the medical care basis. The positive effects of these interventions are not sufficiently linked to the restoration of victims' wellness and reestablishment of their connections with the community – hence social inclusion. The idea of empowering training intervention directed at vulnerable and socially excluded domestic violence survivors is ideal as it might help women to gain control of their lives and instil in them motivation to reclaim their position in the community.

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LONELINESS AND DEPRESSION AMONG POLISH UNIVERSITY STUDENTS: PRELIMINARY FINDINGS FROM A LONGITUDINAL STUDY

Abstract

It is widely acknowledged that loneliness and depression are prevalent among university students and may contribute to poor academic achievements or higher probability of dropping out of university. However, the associations between these two phenomena are complex and not fully understood. In this paper we describe preliminary findings from a longitudinal study investigating the interrelationships between loneliness and depression in a representative sample of students of the University of Rzeszów (Poland). The obtained results confirm those from previous studies reporting a stronger and more stable effect of loneliness on depression than vice versa. A temporally stable influence of loneliness on depression suggests that interventions aiming to reduce the intensity of the feeling of loneliness should result in lowering the severity of depressive symptoms. University counselling services should offer interventions targeting loneliness among the students in order to help them to adapt to the challenges of the university education and protect them from developing depression.

Introduction

Epidemiological studies indicate that depression belongs to the most common mental disorders. Comparative analyses demonstrate that both in developed and developing countries the 12-month prevalence rates of major depression are at least 5% (Kessler et al., 2010). It is widely recognized that university students are one of the groups particularly prone to depression. The meta-analysis performed by Ibrahim et al. (2012), which included the results of 24 studies published in the span of the last 20 years, proved that nearly one third of the students experienced depressive symptoms (the weighted mean for all the included studies was 30.6%).

The elevated level of depressive symptoms in university students is regarded to be associated with a high level of stressors appearing in a relatively short period of time. Stressful events related to this period of life have two different sources (Besser & Zeigler-Hill, 2012). First, they result from the specificity of the educational process: new – relative to a high school – methods of teaching and learning, lesser social support received from lecturers, and greater role of an individual approach to academic duties, individualized skills to scientific work and time management abilities. Second, they are associated with changes in one's social relationships: limited contacts with family and friends, necessity of leaving home and building new social networks.

An unsuccessful process of adaptation to a new social environment may result in social isolation and, as a consequence, feeling of loneliness, understood as “a situation experienced by the individual as one where there is an unpleasant or inadmissible lack of (quality of) certain relationships” (De Jong Gierveld, 1987, p.

120). Similar to depression, loneliness is highly prevalent among university students (Cutrona, 1982; Ponzetti, 1990).

Both feelings of loneliness (Hawkley & Cacioppo, 2010; Mahon, Yarcheski, Yarcheski, Cannella & Hanks, 2006;) and depressive symptoms (Michael, Hueisman, Gerard, Gilligan & Gustafson, 2006) are related to a number of negative consequences – physical (e.g. lowered immunity, increased risk of cardiovascular disorders, sleep disturbances), intrapersonal (e.g. poor self-esteem, decreased level of optimism, anxiety, suicidal behaviours), or interpersonal (e.g. impaired quality of social networks, diminished frequency of interpersonal contacts, social anxiety, reduced perceived social support) – which may lead to a higher mortality (Holt-Lunstad, Smith, Layton & Brayne, 2010; Mykletun et al., 2009). Importantly, loneliness (Benner, 2011) and depression (Eric Chan, Zadeh, Jahng & Mak, 2008; Grimm, 2007) correlate with poor academic achievements and higher probability of dropping out of university.

Depression and loneliness are distinct but closely related, mutually reinforcing phenomena. On the one hand, negative perception of one's social relationships (loneliness) may form the basis for the development of depressive symptoms, and on the other hand depression may contribute to impairments in social relationships (Joiner & Timmons, 2009), and hence to feelings of loneliness. These complex links between inadequate social relationships and depression are well described in a series of papers by Karen D. Rudolph (2008; 2008; 2009).

The reciprocal effects of depression and loneliness are also reflected in longitudinal studies using contemporary statistical methods, e.g. autoregressive cross-lagged panel models (Geiser, 2013). The findings from these studies lead to a general conclusion that although depression and loneliness mutually affect each other, the impact of loneliness is larger (Luo, Hawkley, Waite & Cacioppo, 2012; Vanhalst, Klimstra, et al., 2012) and more stable (Vanhalst, Luyckx, Teppers & Goossens, 2012). The establishment of the direction of this relationship is not only of great theoretical interest, but has also important practical implications.

Identifying mechanisms linking loneliness and depression may help in designing and implementing different types of effective preventive interventions aiming to alleviate their negative consequences. Therefore, we undertook the present longitudinal study intended to further explore the relationship between loneliness and depression in a sample of university students. We tested the hypothesis that this relationship is bi-directional but the effect of loneliness on depression is stronger than the effect of depression on loneliness.

Methods

Participants

A representative sample of 1021 students from the University of Rzeszów (Poland), randomly selected from the university's student database, anonymously took part in this longitudinal, three phase (December 2011, March 2012, June 2012), Internet survey. The majority of the participants were women (85.2%), single (93.3%), with permanent address in the countryside (60.6%).

Instruments

Loneliness was assessed with the UCLA Loneliness Scale-Revised (UCLA-R) (Russell, 1996; Russell, Peplau & Ferguson, 1978). This 20-item questionnaire

contains 11 negatively worded (lonely) and 9 positively worded (non-lonely) items. Respondents are asked to rate each item on a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 4 (often). After reverse coding of several items, a higher score on the scale reflects more feelings of loneliness. The instrument has been demonstrated to have good construct validity (Russell, 1996). In the present study, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was high ($\alpha \geq 0.95$ in each wave of the research).

Depressive symptoms were measured using the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D) Iowa short form (Kohout, Berkman, Evans & Cornoni-Huntley, 1993; Radloff, 1977). This self-report instrument consists of 11 items rated on a 4-point Likert scale that ranges from 0 (rarely or none of the time [less than 1 day]) to 3 (most or all of the time [5–7 days]) based on respondents' feelings during the last week. Responses are summed up to create a total score – higher values indicate more severe depression. We excluded from the total score three items concerning social relations of respondents („I felt lonely”, “People were unfriendly” and “I felt that people disliked me”) in order to avoid item overlap between measures of loneliness and depression (Cacioppo, Hawkley & Thisted, 2010). In our sample, the internal consistency of the scale was adequate ($\alpha > 0.80$ in each wave of the research).

Procedure

In order to examine the longitudinal relationships between loneliness and depression, we used autoregressive cross-lagged modelling with observed variables. In this model, autoregressive and cross-lagged effects can be analyzed (Geiser, 2013). Autoregressive (or autopredictive) effect refers to that part of the model in which a variable is regressed on itself at an earlier time period. Autoregressive part provides information about the relative stability (continuity) of a specified construct over time, or – more precisely – about how much of the variance of the variable X at time T is explained by the same variable measured at time $T-1$. The first-order autoregressive effects are autoregressive effects between adjacent time points (e.g. between T_1 and T_2 or T_2 and T_3). Second-order autoregressive effects are autoregressive effects between nonadjacent time points (e.g. between T_1 and T_3). Cross-lagged effects represent the longitudinal prediction of one construct at time T from the other at time $T-1$, controlling for the autoregressive prediction of that construct from itself over time.

All the analyses were performed with Mplus 7 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012) and maximum likelihood estimator. Model fit was assessed by several commonly used (Byrne, 2012) fit indices: chi-square test, the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA). We assumed that good fit is indicated by p value for chi square test greater than 0.05, values greater than 0.95 for TLI and CFI and lower than 0.06 for RMSEA.

Results

The model with second-order autoregressive effects fitted the data well ($\chi^2 = 5.14$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.07$, $RMSEA = 0.04$, $CFI = 0.99$, $TLI = 0.99$). Regarding the standardized autoregressive coefficients, a high degree of stability between adjacent time points (first-order autoregressive effects: $UCLA_{T_1} \rightarrow UCLA_{T_2} = 0.83$; $UCLA_{T_2} \rightarrow UCLA_{T_3} = 0.53$; $CES-D_{T_1} \rightarrow CES-D_{T_2} = 0.53$; $CES-D_{T_2} \rightarrow CES-D_{T_3} = 0.41$)

and non-adjacent time points (second-order autoregressive effects: $UCLA_{T1} \rightarrow UCLA_{T3} = 0.32$; $CES-D_{T1} \rightarrow CES-D_{T3} = 0.25$) in loneliness and depression was found. All autopredictive effects (including both first- and second-order effects) were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). Higher values of the regression coefficients for loneliness than for depression indicate that the relative level of loneliness remained more stable than depression throughout the study period.

The analysis of the cross-lagged effects leads to the conclusion that while loneliness predicted later depressive symptoms across both time intervals ($UCLA_{T1} \rightarrow CES-D_{T2} = 0.19$ and $UCLA_{T2} \rightarrow CES-D_{T3} = 0.13$), depressive symptoms predicted loneliness only between T2 and T3 ($CES-D_{T2} \rightarrow UCLA_{T3} = 0.09$), but not between T1 and T2 ($CES-D_{T1} \rightarrow UCLA_{T2} = 0.02$). Additionally, the estimated standardized cross-lagged effects from loneliness to depression were larger than the corresponding cross-lagged effects from depression to loneliness. Overall, the present cross-lagged study clearly indicates that loneliness predicts later depressive symptoms.

Conclusions

The main purpose of the presented study was to assess the relationships between loneliness and depression using longitudinal data collected from a representative sample of students of the University of Rzeszów (Poland) at three points in time (during one academic year). The obtained results confirm those from previous studies reporting a stronger and more stable effect of loneliness on depression than vice versa. Thus, our findings provide support for the hypothesis that a negative evaluation of one's interpersonal relationships contributes to the development of depressive symptoms (Luo et al., 2012; Vanhalst, Klimstra, et al., 2012; Vanhalst, Luyckx, Teppers, et al., 2012).

A temporally stable influence of loneliness on depression suggests that interventions aiming to reduce the intensity of the feeling of loneliness should result in lowering the severity of depressive symptoms. The earlier empirical analyses showed that diminishing the level of loneliness assessed with the UCLA scale by one standard deviation leads to a reduction in depressive symptoms measured with the CES-D scale by 0.33 standard deviation two years after the intervention has been applied (VanderWeele, Hawkey, Thisted & Cacioppo, 2011).

While interpreting the findings from our study, some methodological limitations should be taken into consideration. First of all, it is worth noticing that we assessed depression with a simple, shortened version of the CES-D scale. Further studies are needed using the full, preferably revised version of this instrument (CES-D-R, Eaton, Smith, Ybarra, Muntaner, & Tien, 2004), which reflects the diagnostic criteria of DSM-IV (American Psychiatric Association, 2000) and does not contain items concerning interpersonal relationships. Furthermore, we did not include in the analyses important variables which may modify the mutual relationships between loneliness and depression, such as e.g. attachment styles, self-esteem, sense of coherence, sociotropy/autonomy orientation, personality features, level of anxiety, perceived stress, stress coping strategies, or spirituality/religiosity.

Given that depression appearing at earlier life stages may lead to the accumulation of negative consequences through adult life, it seems desirable that university counselling services should offer interventions targeting loneliness among

the students in order to help them to adapt to the challenges of the university education and protect them from developing depressive symptoms. However there is some evidence that the interventions addressing maladaptive social cognition are effective (Masi et al., 2011) the trainings based on empowerment paradigm seems to be promising solution. Engaging young people in structured organized activities that link them to each other and to institutions enhances their self-awareness and social achievement, improves mental health and academic performance and reduces possible social exclusion. Also could help students meet their needs for power and belonging, which will positively affect their achievement motivation – hence learning.

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PSYCHOSOCIAL DIFFICULTIES EXPERIENCED BY PEOPLE DIAGNOSED WITH SCHIZOPHRENIA – BARRIERS TO SOCIAL INCLUSION

Abstract

Schizophrenia as mental illness is defined in terms of diagnostic criteria which do not include the full range of psychosocial difficulties that shape the lived experience of persons with this diagnosis and affect their quality of life. The biopsychosocial approach found in the World Health Organization's International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health – ICF seems to be promising solution. The psychosocial difficulties (PSDs), as defined in it, are impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions. Impairments and activity limitations are components of a person's health state. Participation restrictions go beyond the health state – they are restrictions in a person's functioning in his or her actual environment. Quality of life, on the other hand, is the subjective appraisal of impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions. In the most recent systematic literature review the most relevant PSDs associated with schizophrenia are: cognitive functions and emotional functions, relationships with others, employment, participating in social activities. The themes from the patients' narratives indicate the same ones. The effective mental health services provision, as well as implementation of adequate social interventions should help users to overcome these difficulties. The idea of the training which focuses on common understanding regarding psychosocial difficulties as barriers to social inclusion, and guidance for future research seems to be obligatory in postgraduate curricula for mental health providers.

Introduction

The personal, social and economic costs of brain disorders have been underestimated for decades because of the lack of valid and acceptable information (Andlin-Sobocki et al., 2005) and the reviews of such studies (Wittchen & Jacob, 2005). This is because these disorders are defined in terms of diagnostic criteria which, though invaluable in identifying the underlying health problem and its etiology, do not include the full range of psychosocial difficulties that actually shape the life experience of persons with these disorders and affect their quality of life.

The aim of this paper is to share with academics and mental health providers ideas on psychosocial difficulties (PSDs) with regard to the biopsychosocial approach found in the World Health Organization's International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health – ICF (WHO, 2001).

Although, up until now the application of the ICF in psychiatry (Alvarez, 2012) and social sciences was rather limited it can serve as a basis for creating instruments comprehensively assessing psychosocial outcomes in mental disorders that could be of use in both research and clinical praxis – more effective training interventions, and monitoring their impact over time in terms of what really matters to patients and

caregivers. It might be also useful in terms of mental health providers' postgraduate education aiming at users' empowerment and social inclusion.

Biopsychosocial (BPS) model

The term “biopsychosocial model” is associated with the name of George Engel, the internist, psychiatrist, and psychoanalyst. His background in medicine and psychoanalysis inclined him to look for cross-links among illness, personal development, and life situation. His model responds to three problems in medical thinking that he considered as the causes for dehumanizing care: the dualistic nature of the medical model, with its separation of body and mind; the materialistic and reductionist orientation of medical thinking; the influence of the observer on the observed. The author provided a rationale for including the human dimension of both the clinician and the patient for a comprehensive treatment as well as for a scientific study – clinical formulations based on the BPS model give equal weight to the clinical data in the biological, psychological, and social spheres. All dimensions of the clinical domain function interdependently and reciprocally (Engel, 1997; White, 2005). Since Engel's publication (1997) the biopsychosocial model was put on the undergraduate and postgraduate teaching agenda in medical schools across the world and on the educational programme of residency training in psychiatry and psychology in many places.

The International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health – ICF

The International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) published by the World Health Organization (WHO) in 2001 is based on the biopsychosocial model (BPS) of health and disability. It was developed as an international language to describe the consequences of health conditions at the individual and societal levels.

Psychosocial difficulties arise from the interaction of the psychological and the social factors – hence are not direct consequences of the health condition alone but are outcomes of the interaction between the health condition and contextual factors. They are not the factors that produce an intrinsic decrease in functioning, but also in terms of the physical, social and attitudinal environment that gives the true measure of the impact of brain disorders on people's lives. This social and attitudinal environment, especially in the case of mental illness, includes barriers such as misunderstanding, stigma and discrimination, as well as the absence of social policies to accommodate people with brain disorders in the workplace and in society (WHO, 2001). The absence of such environmental factors is a concurrent reason of functioning decrement – hence social exclusion.

The psychosocial difficulties, as defined in the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health – ICF (WHO, 2001), are impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions. Impairments and activity limitations are components of a person's health state. Participation restrictions go beyond the health state to include restrictions in a person's performance of actions, tasks and behaviors in his or her actual environment. Quality of life, on the other hand, is the subjective appraisal of impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions (Cieza et al., 2008).

Psychosocial difficulties (PSDs) experienced by people with schizophrenia – literature review

Schizophrenia is consistently demonstrated to have a major negative impact on quality of life (Marwaha et al., 2008; Thornicroft et al., 2004; Ritsner & Gibel, 2007), linked with disempowerment (Kilian et al., 2003; Longden, 2010) and social exclusion (Marwaha & Johnson, 2004; Meesters et al., 2010).

Several literature reviews analyzed various aspects of psychosocial difficulties in schizophrenia, such as psychopathological symptoms (Mäkinen et al., 2008) or impairments of basic cognition (Szöke et al., 2008), social cognition (Penn et al., 2008), emotional experience (Cohen & Minor, 2010), social functioning (Meesters et al., 2010), vocational functioning (Marwaha & Johnson, 2004) and quality of life (Eack & Newhill, 2007) but failed to systematically synthesize the data across the entire breadth of psychosocial problems experienced by people with this disease since there is lack of consensus how to define psychosocial outcomes (Figueira & Brissos, 2011).

In accordance with the ICF framework, psychosocial difficulties associated with schizophrenia can be characterized as impairments of mental functions (such as emotional functions) activity limitations, and participation restrictions in such domains as work, family life and leisure activities. Environmental factors such as stigma, a supportive family as well as personal factors, such as confidence in one's ability to overcome difficulties, can have a positive or negative impact on PSDs.

The systematic literature review (Świtaj et al., 2012) confirms that psychosocial problems encountered by people with schizophrenia in their daily lives are very diverse. The most frequently addressed PSDs were related to the areas of psychopathology, overall disability and functioning, relationships with others, cognitive functions, emotional functions, quality of life and wellbeing, employment, and energy and drive. This pattern of findings well reflects the common understanding of unfavorable schizophrenia course and outcome as a socially excluding disease manifesting itself by positive, negative, cognitive, mood and motor symptoms, variable degrees of functional, social and occupational impairments, and marked worsening of both objective and subjective indicators of quality of life.

Psychosocial difficulties (PSDs) experienced by people with schizophrenia – lived experience

A qualitative study using focus group methodology (Lehoux et al., 2006; Rees et al., 2007) was conducted in Warsaw to identify and explore the significance of the PSDs experienced by people with lived experience of schizophrenia. The recruitment of participants and data collection were performed by health professionals: one psychiatrist, one psychologist at the clinical centre. A maximum variation strategy regarding age, gender and severity of the health condition was used to ensure a wide range of views and perspectives. Eight patients, one moderator and an assistant discussed the themes, which were initiative by the moderator: *What are your difficulties in everyday life? Which of these difficulties trouble you most? How these difficulties affect your life? When did they start to be a difficulty? Why do you think this difficulty started? Have you notice any changes in regards these difficulties over the time? Why do you think these difficulties get worse or better, come and go?*

The main themes concerning the determinants of PSD included the illness itself, lack of public knowledge and understanding, the media's contribution to unhelpful

negative public image, negative or ignorant attitudes of mental health service workers, lack of continuity and long term view and limited resources. The PSDs identified were stigma, marginalization *...when I got schizophrenia my world changed! It was like a life sentence of rejection and poverty. I became instantly different, omitted, excluded and vulnerable. The challenges include not only the illness itself, but also other people's fear and ignorance...*, discrimination, social withdrawal, disengagement, loneliness *...even my closest friend disappeared when I told him about my illness...*, fear, despair and helplessness, problems with relationships and interpersonal skills (affecting family, intimate and occupational relationships), frustrations with mental health services *...being in hospital is really traumatic, there is always the fear of involuntary commitment, you can't talk freely, so you tell them what they want to hear and wait to be rescued. I think all health professionals should be taught listen more carefully and give clear information about what they think is the matter with you...*, problems with self-esteem and overprotection, un-met needs for social reciprocity, constancy, hope and understanding, problems with finding and keeping work *...I suppose I know now that I will never work and achieve what I originally wanted to do in life, I lost my first job because people eventually found out I was ill. I feel helpless but I am trying to accept it. I would really like find a proper job. I heard from a friend that supported-employment programmes can work ... and a place to live.*

For mental health providers and planners, relating these life experiences to clinical one can provide a tool for facilitating deeper levels of understanding between them and their clients, working towards a common understanding of the issues that really matter to those experiencing schizophrenia. This has the potential of informing research development, public attitudes as well as services provision and social inclusion.

Psychosocial difficulties and empowering strategies

Now in management, education (Kellerl & Dansereaul, 1995; Boomer, 1982), and mental health (Anczewska & Wciórka, 2007) empowerment is understood as a complex concept. It encompasses a number of phenomena relating to changing the intra-psyche and behavioral dimensions of people themselves. It fosters personal growth (gaining a sense of control and self-efficacy, self-awareness and self-acceptance, self-regulation); skills development; better understanding and utilisation of one's social role. The ideology applied to the individual equips him/her with an instrument of self-determination, provides competency awareness, strengthens self-esteem and increases stress resilience. It combines both process and outcome. The key issue seems to be that empowerment as a growth process of an individual should be supported and encouraged by the group structure within which he or she is working to promote learning. Engaging people with schizophrenia experience in structured organized activities that link them to each other and to institutions enhances their self-awareness and social achievement, improves mental health and reduces possible social exclusion. Empowering them (both intrapersonally and interpersonally) to take control to lead functional and fulfilling lives help them meet their needs for power and belonging, enables to pursue their goals and personal development.

Conclusions

The paper illustrates the broad scope and diversity of psychosocial difficulties, as framed by the biopsychosocial approach in the World Health Organization's International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health – ICF, found in the literature and in the qualitative users' narratives.

The effective mental health services provision, as well as implementation of adequate social interventions should help users to overcome these difficulties – hence to gain control of their lives and instil in them motivation to reclaim their position in the community.

The idea of the training which focuses on common understanding regarding psychosocial difficulties as barriers to social inclusion, better intervention targeting and guidance for future research seems to be obligatory in postgraduate curricula for mental health providers.

When planning longitudinal or cross-national research the psychosocial difficulties from the patients' perspective should be implemented.

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LIFELONG LEARNING FROM ETHICAL PERSPECTIVE

Abstract

The author reflects upon the specific character of ethics as a domain of knowledge that came into being in order to gather truths, which would help human beings to wisely take care of themselves. She argues that the ethical perspective should be taken into account while planning the lifelong learning activities. Further, she notes that if the goal for lifelong education would only be the constant development of knowledge and professional skills, then it may pose a danger of treating people who participate in such programs as merely enhanced means to an end. In such cases praxeology seems to be more useful than ethics. The author writes about the relationship between education and subjectivity and describes the educational situation as an organized encounter in designed surrounding. She claims that the person planning the situation, the one carrying it out, and the one partaking in it as a pupil are all responsible for the result of the educational situation. She emphasizes that the *ergon* is necessary for creating ethical educational situations. The aim of the educational activity carried out within the lifelong learning system should be, she claims, the experience of truth, good, and beauty.

The Need for Lifelong Learning and the Specific Character of Ethics

Theoreticians and practitioners have noticed that the dynamic of the changes in human environment constrain lifelong learning. We discern the necessity of constant improvement and development of competences, as well as, more and more often the need for retraining. The constantly changing world is an inspiration for education allowing to make a better use of the opportunities created by the new reality not only in the sphere of professional activity.

It is often emphasized that the goal of lifelong learning is to maintain or to enrich the knowledge and professional skills (Le Robert, 1990). It should be noted, however, that if we decide to identify the goal of lifelong learning only with the constant development of knowledge and professional skills, we may verge upon treating the human being as a tool enhancing the chances for attaining a certain goal; the goal to reach the highest productivity efficiency in various spheres of human activity. A logical consequence of having such a goal is mercantilization of education. In such a situation the ethical perspective disappears from the reflection on education and it is exchanged for the praxeological one.

Ethics as a domain of knowledge came into being in order to be a collection of truths needed by human beings to wisely take care of themselves. Ethicists seek the answer to the question how human acts should be conducted. Attaining knowledge, skills and competencies needed for such a conduct should be the result of partaking in the educational process. Teaching and learning should be related to the care for the human being.

Praxeology pertains to human activity, too, but it is interested in the effectiveness and economy of actions, and not in whether the consequences of those actions bring about good or evil. Praxeologists look for the answers on the questions

regarding the issue: how efficiently and economically realize the goals? The reflection on the sense of the goals perceived from the perspective of human goodness must be carried out by ethicists.

In order to act wisely one has to be able to employ both, the ethical and praxeological perspectives. For the two perspectives should be taken into account if one wants to understand human actions and plan them sensibly. It should be noted that the ethical perspective is related to that what should be, and hence, it may go beyond that what is. Ethics appeals to the universal values and should not give in to pressure of some concrete practice systems. It should suggest the directions of actions which will result in wisdom of human beings and a human-friendly world. An important advice that should not be forgotten by pedagogues is Kant's practical imperative. The philosopher claims that if one wants to behave ethically, one should always treat every human being, both oneself and others, as the goal of actions and not as a means required for reaching the goal (Kant, 1984, p. 68).

The consequence of accepting efficiency as the basic criterion for the assessment of actions is the fact that esteem is accorded to such technocrats who see morality as something that limits the efficiency of actions, and the old philosophical discipline – ethics – seems redundant. The characteristic feature of pseudo-professionalism, which is rootless and lacking the broad context that allows to understand the meaning of actions, is limiting the perspective of thinking and ignoring the long-term outcomes of the undertaken actions (Wiśniewski, 1995). When the awareness of the responsibility pertinent to the sense of authorship disappears, when the subjectivity of the person undertaking the action is lost in the thick of extemporary goals, it is a signal that he or she is unable to find the time for ethical reflection. In consequence we observe that quite often the outcomes of human actions lead to significant damage in social and natural environment; that human beings act against themselves. In order to be able to do good, human beings should not only be efficient but responsible, as well. Moreover, they should be able to experience and recognize values. In the rapidly changing world the latter skill is greatly valuable. It is difficult to realize the subjectivity without it.

Subjectivity

The category of subjectivity is associated, for a reason, mainly with the paradigm of modern thinking. In that thinking paradigm the subject is an important element of the relation schema that orders the understanding of "facts" and the relations between them. In the subject-object schema it means that active is that what has the capability of perceiving, changing, wanting, producing.

Thinking about relations within the modern, simplifying, linear and unidirectional subject – object schema one objectifies everything what belongs to the area of cognitive or practical activity. We as well become the "object" of our reflection and may become the "object" of our actions. It is a short way to instrumental treating others and ourselves instrumentally. In the modern subject-object schema, where the subject's freedom is contrasted with any conditionings, it is easier to treat oneself as a means to an end, than as the end. Kant's practical imperative arises as a response to that easiness (Kant, 1984, p. 68).

However, the subject can be conceived differently – as the "source" of the activity based in a certain system of behaving and understanding, and leading to a

particular end. Such an understanding makes us resign from an antagonizing way of thinking.

An interesting concept of the subject is proposed by in Roman Ingarden's philosophy. He proffered an original theory of systems and an interesting notion of "relatively isolated systems". This notion turned to be useful in discussing the requirements the subject of responsibility must comply with. In the opinion of the Polish phenomenologist the fundamental condition for being the subject of responsibility is to have within oneself the acting center that allows for grasping the initiative (Ingarden, 1972, p. 133). According to the philosopher an acting person (a certain entirety constituted by the unity with the body) must form a relatively isolated system, which is a system of a particular kind that is unreachable for inanimate objects but which may not also be realized in every living beings (1972, p. 134). If we employ such a notion of the subject, we must emphasize the importance of preparing the human being for responsible actions.

We face a dangerous phenomenon today – the domination of the world of notions over that what is unreachable for the discourse, and in consequence, the domination of the discourse and virtual world over that what is real. When we try to understand reality in the framework of the discourse imposed order, we resign from opening ourselves up to that what is beyond the discourse. The word may lose its creative power and become a refuge for the human being escaping from it. Theories will not be the result of "love of wisdom" any more, but tendentious constructs, which aim not at the truth but at attaining an alleged good. If we do not value the truth, if we do not know it, we are unable to realize our will. As the source of our actions we are unable to be either wise or efficient. We need to prepare ourselves for experiencing the truth because it is worthy to learn how to discover it. The truth is not limited and learning it does not have to take place in a defined certain time. The idea of lifelong learning harmonizes with the understanding of the discovered by Socrates the specificity of the truth.

The Educational Situation – an Organized Encounter in Designed Surrounding

Martin Heidegger in his analysis of the word *ethos* discovers an important intuition regarding the meaning of the interrelationship between the human being and a broadly understood environment, which also includes the spiritual dimension. In his *Letter on Humanism* he modifies the hitherto prevailing, in his opinion somewhat falsified translation of that word. Heidegger states: "If the name 'ethics', in keeping with the basic meaning of the word *ethos*, should now, say that ethics ponders the abode of the human being" (2008, p. 256). If we accept the proposed by Heidegger translation of the word *ethos*, we must realize how important "the abode", the open space of human dwelling is for the realization of the essence of the human being.

In his etymological analysis of the word *ethos* Józef Tischner observes that in the original sense it is a place where a plant may develop without hindrances, where it can live and bear fruit (1982, p. 53). He believes that a living creature, in order to "bear fruit", must find its proper *ethos*, i.e., the "environment", "dwelling", living space. In Tischner's opinion the objective point of properly practiced ethics should be an introduction of the internal order in the human being, i.e., the internal

integration (1982, p. 53). The *ethos* co-created by the human being favors such an internal order, an interruption of which is dangerous for the human being and, in consequence, for the environment the human being stays in relation with. The surrounding allows us to discover and realize our potential.

If we appreciate the meaning of the surrounding, we may reflect upon the specificity of the educational situation. Every situation, where the human being is involved has an educational dimension. However what is called educational situation is the situation that is designed and organized in order to attain the planned outcomes related to knowledge, skills and competencies. How to plan an educational situation to ensure that it is friendly to all the participants?

Approaching the task from the ethical perspective, which emphasizes freedom and human authorship, one may reach the conclusion that the educational situation should foster discovering the truth, learning how to carry out good deeds and experience beauty. It should enable the contact with the three fundamental and universal values of the European culture: truth, goodness, and beauty.

Such a way of looking at the problem of education does not harmonize with the postmodern thinking. In the postmodern reflection the universality of values brings about anxiety, as any form of constancy does, just like anything that may assign to itself and strengthen the human activity and the existence of the being. The fear of constancy is accompanied by a longing for a certain “disappearing aesthetics” that remains in the hearing metaphor. This longing harmonizes with the resignation from the classical perspective of truth, goodness, and beauty. We should notice however that without that perspective the reality becomes a positive universe of facts; the universe that does not have to be true, does not undergo evaluation, does not captivate. Then, not only disappears the distinction between the truth and false but also the difference between that what is apparent and that what is real.

For the educational situation to be ethical, it must prepare for avoiding the trap of tentativeness, which confines human beings in that what is, and it deprives them of the possibility of being creative; it disenchant the world and conjures it in the *profanum*. The educational situation should foster the discovery of multidimensional nature of the world and protect it from flattening and trivialization. It should help humans to unveil their own capabilities and assist in comprehending what freedom and responsibility are about.

Who is Responsible for the Educational Situation?

In order to reach positive outcomes of an educational situation the involvement of all the situation participants is required. The person planning the situation, the one carrying it out, and the one partaking in it as a pupil are all responsible. In the case of lifelong learning, the situations may occur where one person can play all three roles at the same time. In the reflection on the relations in the educational situation it is often emphasized that all the participants are simultaneously pupils and teachers. It is noted that such a situation is open and dynamic. People participating in it are responsible for the results they are set to achieve.

The goal of the educational situation is a change in the scope of knowledge, skills and competencies possessed by the participants of such a situation. In order to achieve that goal, all the participants have to do their work. Ethics defines work as a conscious, purposeful human activity, which results in a change of reality. The

distinction between the types of work that is to be found in the ancient Greeks' reflection seems important. They introduced the differentiation between *ergon* and *kopos*. The *ergon* is the work carried out for its direct outcome. It enables satisfaction and free citizens' activity. The *kopos* on the other hand is the work carried out for the equivalent we get for the time and effort dedicated to the completion of the task; it is a toilsome employ of the slaves. It should be noted that the *ergon* is related to the sense of responsibility for the results of the activity, and *kopos* is linked to feeling responsible towards those who assess us and who provide us with the expected equivalent. The *ergon* is necessary for creating ethical educational situation. What direct outcome do we want to reach in the case of educational activity? Is it experiencing the truth, goodness, and beauty? The Platonic triad marks the areas, which correspond to the three attitudes towards reality. The truth recapitulates the cognitive attitude, goodness – the moral attitude, beauty – the aesthetic one. We should take into account these values while planning an educational situation. The aim of the *ergon* carried out within the lifelong learning system should be to experience them. For then, we will avoid the trap, observed already by Socrates, of "going around in circles", which can successfully keep us in the reality we have constructed on the basis of the dogmatically treated truths established in the currently valid paradigm of science.

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CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVES IN ADULT EDUCATION AND LIFELONG LEARNING – ANDRAGOGICAL MODEL OF LEARNING

Abstract

Nowadays, adult education and lifelong learning constitutes one of the most significant factors influencing economic growth and social development. Definitions such as 'knowledge society' and 'knowledge-based economy' exist in a great number of the Polish and European Union papers and documents and they are not only the reality, but also the challenge and programme of the future. In the period of various economic challenges and economic crisis there is a necessity to devise the educational strategy of counteraction to crisis. It may be achieved via rebuilding Polish vocational education system, improvement of the standards of teaching and creating a chain of institutions of lifelong education for adults. To obtain the aforementioned aims one ought to implement the andragogical model of learning to the process of vocational lifelong education. Andragogy remains one of the dominant models of adult learning.

Adult education thus becomes more than a right; it is a key to the twenty-first century.
(The Hamburg Declaration on Adult Learning)

Introduction

Nowadays, adult education and lifelong learning constitutes one of the most significant factors influencing economic growth and social development. Definitions such as 'knowledge society' and 'knowledge-based society' exist in a great number of the Polish and EU papers and documents and they are not only the reality, but also the challenge and programme of the future.

The fact that Poland has been a member of the European Union since 2004 results in the increase of our interest in the European space of research and education (Bednarczyk, 2009, p. 67). However, it is vital to emphasise that the European dimension of education is not a new educational category brought to life as a consequence of integrational processes of the Old Continent. Education in Europe has had European character for ages – in the past it has never implemented other education than the European one.

In the period of various economic challenges and economic crisis, the necessity to elaborate an educational strategy of counteraction to crisis seems to be very important. It may be achieved via rebuilding Polish vocational education system, improvement of the standards of teaching and creating a chain of institutions of lifelong education for adults.

Andragogists working on adult education and lifelong learning describe modern civilisation as 'knowledge-based', where knowledge is, simultaneously, the autonomic value and social capital. Present lifelong learning strategy, essential for Europe, aims at creation of the European learning society being liable to evolve into the progressive one. The basis of lifelong learning in the European Union is the council resolution of 27 June 2002 on lifelong learning.

According to representatives of Polish andragogy (Aleksander, 2003; Turoś, 2010) the best educational practices are the ones that directly refer to the needs perceived by an individual as significant and the ones that respect maximum control from an individual. When individual needs are consistent with organisational needs, there are no tensions. For these reasons specialists engaged in personnel advancement are to keep balance between practices leading to the most effective learning, as far as adults are concerned, and practises which result in raising the level of organisational effects.

It is necessary to remark that adult education activity lives its revival together with the development and alterations, which occurred in the post-industrial society. Thus, a valid enquiry arises: are adults able to learn effectively and in what way? Positive answer to this question is the basis to create modern systems of vocational education, which is by no means an investment into human capital.

It is beyond any doubts that educated personnel is the most important part of each institution. On the other hand, it is essential to bear in mind that career takes an important part in adult life, especially when it demands higher level of education and qualifications.

Among adults, professional development and career are commonly recognised as positive and desired values. Achievement of social prestige is possible due to the increase of the level of knowledge and gaining new skills. Professional career and success at work constitute values, which are to be gained via education in successful organisations (Błaszczak, 2012, pp. 74-75). Therefore, both employers and employees ought to be interested in developing professional competence and its constant improvement.

The answer to the question concerning effectiveness of lifelong education presents numerous research results in the process of learning regarding people at different ages. The research conducted in the scope of the developmental psychology proved that 'crystallised intelligence' is to be responsible for the processes of adult learning, as it uses gained experience and mental habits, the increase of speech fluency, new strategies of thinking and organisation of knowledge. This type of intelligence, contrary to inborn 'fluid intelligence', may be developed through the entire life of a human being, under the condition that a person will remain mentally active.

Hence, those people for whom life is the continuous process of education achieve better results. As for adults, the best results are achieved when they learn things related to purposeful action, thus, to their work, especially the one that set high requirements to the employee. Such work provides an individual high level in realms, in which a person has been specialising for years. Knowledge and skills create new quality called life wisdom, resulting from mental operations carried out in respect to gained experiences.

Employer awareness, concerning the benefits from investment in educational development of employees, ought to cause the implementation of the andragogical model of adult vocational education, via creating professional chains of educational institutions for adults, such as centres for lifelong learning.

It is necessary to highlight that modern structural alterations occurring in industry not only in Poland but in the whole world and the necessity to keep up with technical and technological progress coerce the need of permanent adjustment of

qualifications and skills of the employees to market needs and specific expectations coming from the employers.

Taking everything into consideration, there is a well-defined need to create suitable conditions in order to enable the development of lifelong education in relation to employees working in various types of industry. The implementation of employees from various types of industry to vocational education, the andragogical model of adult learning, will contribute to:

- improved exchange of information in the scope of modern solutions and technology,
- development of research and high quality of practices in the area of job market,
- a wide range of counselling and training,
- more complete diagnose of the situation regarding the needs and possibilities of lifelong education for industrial workers.

Technological and andragogical model of adult learning

Lifelong education as a 'contemporary educational model, based on continuous renewal and improvement of knowledge and qualifications both general and vocational, lasting through the whole life of an individual, may be considered in numerous aspects' (Aleksander, 2003, p. 985). Via lifelong education of industrial workers one ought to understand both completing education and permanent instruction of employees of this economy sector.

Modern adult education encompasses varied models of educational work as varied educational needs require different strategies of their fulfilment.

Specific character of adult learning is determined by the rules governing adult conduct in the learning situation. To take the argument further, effective implementation of the process of learning depends on taking individual features of a learner into consideration and being able to find the place in particular elements of the didactic process.

Having this logic accepted constitutes an introduction to create innovative methodology of educational work with adults, which being in harmony with the selected model of teaching guarantees achievement of the chosen aim.

The foundation of teaching methodology is determined by didactic rules: 'The rules in pedagogy signify both standards of conduct acknowledged to be proper to obtain established objective of pedagogic behaviour. They also formulate the grounds on which conduct appropriate for the process of upbringing and education is based' (Półturzycki, 1991, p. 141).

In educational practice all the rules are to be used creatively and exchangeably in various models of teaching adults. The choice of the model of educational work is determined by a great number of factors, among which one may find:

- aims of instruction,
- culture of educational institution,
- andragogist's preferences,
- characteristic features of the participants of adult education,
- educational surrounding.

Fundamentals and didactic rules of working with adults elaborated by the representatives of Polish, American and German andragogy, with reference to

technological and andragogical model of adult lifelong education, are presented below.

Each of the following models has specific features and differences in the scope of particular criteria:

Technological model – in which the most important assumptions are (Malewski, 2001, p. 284):

- Conveying arranged knowledge is the main task of education;
- Describing the world in which adults live or will live and work without referring to their judgements, opinions, experiences;
- Bearing responsibility by the teacher for the results of teaching.

In the technological model of adult education and lifelong learning the following rules of education are obligatory:

- Induction – gaining knowledge about reality via getting to know things, phenomena and events directly or, visualisation of the process of instruction via images, models, graphs, tables;
- Intelligibility – gradation of difficulty, the necessity of adjustment of contents and method of instruction to the student's development and abilities;
- Regularity – in assimilating and consolidating presented material, and its appropriate order;
- Aware and active participation – active methods, trials to determine the problem, searching for the materials, analysis;
- Formation of the ability to learn – developing the ability to learn, preparation for self-study, using help, registering information;
- Combining theory and practice – indicating similarities to the knowledge and skills already known;
- Using experience of adults – consolidation of positive experiences, explaining negative ones;
- Individualisation and collectivity – individualised process of instruction, group work, guidance, consultations;
- Durability of knowledge – revising the material, referring to experiences and clarity, active involvement of the participants, implementing verification of discovered law, systematic control;
- Lifelong education – constant development, enrichment of personality, stimulating the need of further learning.

Andragogical model – it is a processual model in contrast to the above-mentioned technological model, which is, in other words, content model, applied by most traditional adult educators. The difference between these two models is not based on the fact that one concentrates on content and the other one does not, but a crucial difference is that the content model concerns information and skills conveyance, whereas the andragogical model focuses on procedures and resources aiding a learner in assimilating information and skills (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2009, p. 107).

In traditional system of education the teacher decides in advance on the manner in which knowledge and skills are to be conveyed, puts the material in the logical entirety, chooses the most effective means of conveyance and then he/she prepares the plan of presentation. The teacher (facilitator) using the andragogical model prepares in advance a set of procedures that involve adult learners into the process based on the following elements (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2009, p. 107):

1. Learner preparation;
2. Creating amiable atmosphere that facilitates learning;
3. Initiating mechanisms enabling mutual planning;
4. Diagnosing educational needs;
5. Formulating aims that can fulfil the above-mentioned needs (curriculum content);
6. Designing the pattern of educational experiences;
7. Managing these experiences using suitable means and techniques;
8. Teaching assessment and repeated diagnosis of educational needs.

As for the andragogical model, the main task of education is to improve the quality of adult life:

- Education is perceived as the way to better and subjective existing in the world;
- Knowledge is a symbol of everyday life experience;
- Searching for knowledge belongs to a learner;
- Dialogue is an effective method of teaching.

In this model the following rules are obligatory:

- *Target group orientation* – organising the didactic process according to expectations and possibilities of specific groups of participants;
- *Participant orientation* – individualisation of the process of instruction, becoming familiar with needs and experiences of an individual;
- *Work on interpretation patterns* – exchanging opinions referring to the ways of perceiving the world, reinforcement of interpretation patterns;
- *Adjusting the language of instruction to the recipients* – adjusting the language to the cognitive possibilities of a learner;
- *Joint perspective of a teacher and a learner* – striving to reach an agreement through showing respect of individual differences and indicating similarities;
- *Learning aims orientation* – possibility of establishment of the instructional aims;
- *Confronting with curriculum content* – appropriate choice and analysis of curriculum content;
- *Self-education* – reflective learning;
- *Integration of general and professional education* – integration of various fields of knowledge and life;
- *Influence of emotions on the teaching-learning process* – teaching-learning culture causing positive reactions;
- *Action-orientation* – combining theory with practice, using experiences;
- *Aestheticisation* – aesthetic sensations causing psychological comfort (images, music, classroom interior, teacher appearance);
- *Time economics* – good planning of time budget;
- *Mistake probability* – creating conditions facilitating the process of learning, arousing reflections, differentiating methods of teaching;
- *Using humour* – using humour during classes to intensify the effects of teaching.

Summary

In the field of economy and society development and in adult education the central category for both theory and practice is the process of adult learning. In

modern culture of adult education and lifelong learning one may find various models of educational work as varied educational needs of adults require different strategies of their fulfilment. Nevertheless, from the andragogical point of view, in the process of adult education and lifelong learning the most effective is the andragogical model of learning. Andragogy remains one of the dominant models of adult learning. Although a lot of obstacles and limits exist, andragogy has numerous possibilities in the scope of research and practice. To take the issue further, the more we are knowledgeable about cognitive development, the better we can adjust adult learning to their specific needs and possibilities.

The development of the Polish society and economy depends on the activity of market mechanism and acceleration of the process of modernisation of economy structure, which is closely related to adult participation in the process of lifelong education. Specialists emphasise the necessity to increase the number of people who work towards completing their education in Poland during one year from 8-10% to 20-25% from all employed, thus, to the level obtained in other countries from the EU.

The above-mentioned actions are an obligation of the whole society, national, institutional and religious education system, associations and foundations. Human capital is the basic factor of development and wealth of the nation. The society will be able to fulfil these requirements if it is open-minded, innovative, understand the rules of contemporary competition and organises effective system of education and lifelong learning. Polish lifelong education may and should be a valuable tool used for forming our country in its spiritual and material shape.

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EXAMINING THE REASONS BLACK MALE YOUTHS GIVE FOR COMMITTING CRIME WITH REFERENCE TO INNER CITY AREAS OF LONDON

Abstract

This paper presents a mini research carried out by the Focus Learning Support (FLS) team on reasons why young black males in the community commit crime. Knife and gun crime is seen as a serious problem in the black community involving black males in the inner London city areas – many of whom are both victims and offenders of knife and gun crime. One of the primary aims of FLS is to focus on engaging the youths in positive activities such as career development. Youth crime is a big issue hindering some of the youths who are victims of crime from developing a career, as most of the offenders spend their lives in prison and miss out on what matters. The paper examines the reasons why young black youths engage in criminal activities and suggests ways to prevent such criminal acts, thereby enabling them to be focused on their career aspirations and becoming good citizens. The study uses quantitative and qualitative research methods, quantitative method aimed to explore existing literature and research on reasons behind youth crimes in inner London cities. The use of qualitative method is designed to find out the reasons young black males give for committing crime instead of focusing on their career development. The paper uses case studies to share the experiences of the black youths on reasons why they are forced to commit crime. The findings from the study identified factors contributing to youth crimes such as fatherless families, self image, relationships with police, education system and negative influences. Other factors include unemployment, lack of career engagement and bad gangs. One of the measures to prevent youth crimes amongst black male youths is to continue to ensure that knowledge on crimes is made compulsory in schools and shared at home. Other suggestions are to fully engage the youths on positive activities such as career development, sports, employment opportunities and community policing.

Context

The issue of knife and gun crime is predominately present among young black males with a huge body of literature written and reports about youth crime. Although, what is considered as youth crime or youth offending is difficult to explain because the phrase is continuously being '(re) invented and (re) defined', for instance, the phrase Juvenile delinquent was established in the 19th century and was linked to 'unemployment, lack of discipline and moral degeneration'. Adolescence as troublesome was created in the 20th century and later 'troubled offender' was introduced to describe - the latter association with youth crime – a behaviour that is deemed to be undesirable and which may or may not hold the same penalty as adult crimes (Muncie, 2009: 79). Criminal acts that were commonly committed by adults are now being committed by youths, for instance the two 10 year old boys who murdered the two year old Jamie Bulger in 1993 and the two brothers (aged 12 and

13) that murdered the 10 year old Damilola Taylor (2000). In 2009, 16 year old Shakilus murdered by young males aged between 17-19 and Ben Kinsella 16 was killed by three young males aged between 18-19. Crimes committed by youths today vary greatly, the Youth Justice Board survey found that the total number of offences committed by 10 to 17 year olds was 277,986 in 2007 and 2008. A considerable amount of these crimes included drug related offences, robbery, arson, violence against another person (Youth Justice Board, 2008). This demonstrates general crimes committed by youths of all ethnic minority groups and how young the offenders are, information like this highlights the seriousness of crime among young people. Discussing youth crime provides an understanding of the phrase and exactly what crimes are carried out by youths in society today. As useful as the statistics provided above are they fail to explain why young people commit crime. Some of the factors identified in the literature that contribute to youth offending are: lack of parental supervision, low family income conflict within families, low attainment, exclusion from school, lack of community togetherness, opportunities to offend, youth character, troublesome friends (Metropolitan Police Service, 2003-2008), these are only a few general causes of youth crime. However, the paper specifically focuses on the knife and gun crime committed by the young offenders. 'Knife crime, is any crime that involves a knife, this includes: carrying or trying to buy a knife if you're under 18, threatening people with a knife, carrying an illegal kind of knife, murder or assault in which the victim was stabbed with a knife, robbery or burglary where the thieves carried a knife as a weapon,' this definition was cited from the Directgov website¹. Knife and gun crimes have persistently occurred in our society particularly in countries like United Kingdom, America and Africa. It is growing issue of concerns for the above mentioned countries. It is an issue that requires educating those involved to resist from the act, as it leads nowhere than either life imprisonment and for some countries execution. Hence engaging the youths on a career development such as creating employment, education, sports activities and talent development can help prevent knife and gun crimes found in youths.

Literature indicates that crimes involving weapons is a serious matter in society today because it involves young people carrying them. Most young people that commit knife crime are often victims, the British Crime Survey (BCS) in 2006-07 revealed that young people were four times more likely to be victims of violent crime compared to adults who were 3.6 per cent at risk of victimisation. Such victimisation is common among young males aged between 16 and 24, this group experienced 13.8 of violent crime (Nicholas et al., 2007). In particular, victimisation of knife crime is more common among black and minority ethnic communities (Eades et al., 2007), and has become a well-known crime committed by most young black males. Statistics produced by Scotland Yard revealed between April 1st and June 30 of 2008 that 124 out of the 225 people, under the age of 18 proceeded against or accused of knife crime were black (Wright, 2008).

Gun crime is another serious crime that predominately occurs in the black community, this criminal act is defined as: An offence that involves the use of a gun in the following situations, a murder where the victim was shot, any situation where a gun was fired, even if no one was injured, any robbery or burglary where the

¹ http://www.direct.gov.uk/en/CrimeJusticeAndTheLaw/Typesofcrime/DG_181675

thieves carried a gun, any case in which people were intimidated with a weapon, any body found carrying a banned gun, such as a handgun, or using imitation gun². Such crimes affect young people and the community and to try and prevent such incidents from happening especially in the black community Operation, Trident was set up in 1998, to stop murders and shooting among young black people in London³.

Causes of Youth Crime

Literature presents that the presence and involvement of a father in a young black male's life is essential within the home, those youths that are fatherless are prone to offending (Okoronkwo, 2008). Concerning single parent families and crime, studies have revealed the definite link, for instance 70 per cent of young offenders come from single parent families (Youth Justice Board, 2002 in Social Justice Challenge, 2007: 6). Academics like Murray (1984) and Wilson (1987) suggest the development of such families are the consequence of relationship break down between African-Caribbean men and women, which have caused them to be reliant on governmental provisions. They suggest the deterioration of the family has contributed to high levels of offending amongst second and latter generation of African-Caribbean youths and has brought about ineffective parenting and lack of parental guidance for young children (Smith, 2005). Smith's (2005) study relies on quantitative research which does not provide rich accounts of the reasons for high crime rates amongst British African-Caribbean, Bangladeshi and Pakistani males which are the groups he researched. His explanation for high crime rates among African-Caribbean's does not consider class which can help understand crime levels and offending among certain groups.

Family structures in contemporary society have changed, which shows it is not just a phenomenon within the black community, in fact this is happening all around the world this trend of multiple family structures is apparent. One can argue that the society that we live in today – is made up of several divorced families, lone parent families, same sex families, to mention a few (Webster, 2007), although this research does not suggest that the traditional nuclear family does not exist anymore, in fact there are many families that still embrace this family structure. The work of Smith (2005) provides a historical explanation of how African-Caribbean family structure has changed and the consequences that it has left. His account of family breakdown lays the foundation for black family structure and helps to understand how the majority of these families are governed today. However it is also essential to demonstrate affection and show interest in children while they are growing up.

This advocates a more theoretical approach to investigating the causes of knife and gun crime. Within the umbrella of positivist criminology there are two approaches that explain the causes of youth crime. The individual positivist criminology argued that the causes of youth crime are related to youth character. They suggest that crime is the result of adolescence lack of emotional development meaning the status quo way of behaving has not been installed into the child causing them to act inappropriately. Freud (1952) suggests that adolescence is seen as a problematic stage in life because youth struggle between 'natural instinct' and

² http://www.direct.gov.uk/en/CrimeJusticeAndTheLaw/Typesofcrime/DG_181544

³ <http://www.stoptheguns.org/whatistrident/index.php>

'cultural constraints', which is manifested in their behaviour (cited in Muncie, 2009: 94). This can be understood as their psychological development has not yet manifested in them causing them to be controlled by their own behaviour. The process of adolescence is one that is not easy for youths; it is a self-battle for the adolescence between 'ego identity' and 'identity confusion'. Erikson further mentions that this is a process that needs to be resolved sooner rather than later because it can affect the child's way of life in the future. He concludes that adolescence as a theory consists of 'emotional disorder, impairment and pathology' that is irregular and inevitable (Erikson, 1968 cited in Muncie, 2009: 94). Erikson's analysis of youth personality can be applied to this work on young black males and crime because some black males often find themselves struggling to find out their identity, Anderson (1999) asserts that inner city black males usually look to the streets to find out who they are; in other words, many of these young black males are longing for identity at quite an early age.

Black males and their relationships with institutions

Another cause is related to police and the education system and the effects that they have on their behaviour. The education system as an institution, illustrates why young black males may face difficulty in obeying teacher's authority and why they lack in academic attainment. The second institution is the police. Connections between exclusion and delinquency have been established; this can also be linked to other phenomena such as 'lack of parental supervision, truancy, poverty and weak commitment to education' (Giddens, 2007: 721). Those that faced high levels of permanent exclusion in 2002/03 were black Caribbean and other black students. Exclusion among them 37 and 32 per ten thousand students in compulsory education (Social Trend, 2004: 42 cited in Giddens, 2007: 722).

Methodology

The mini research uses quantitative and qualitative approach, quantitative method aimed to explore existing literature and research on reasons behind youth crimes in inner London cities. The use of qualitative method is designed to find out the reasons young black males give for committing crime instead of focusing on their career development. Focused group discussions and debates through media and interviews were relevant in gathering perceptions of the participants.

Findings

When discussing factors that cause knife and gun crime amongst young black males a factor that appeared most frequently was the lack of fathers in their lives. Most of the respondents stressed the importance of father and son relationships being away of deterring crime. Another factor that featured most was family upbringing; most participants suggested that parents need to teach their children the correct norms and values of society which includes teaching them right from wrong. Comment from a respondent: *'fatherlessness within the black community is common and their family structures are weak compared to other ethnic groups who have close family ties which keep their children away from crime especially knife and gun crime, she further highlights that firm values within their family structures deter*

their youth from crime'. The above response is in line with what Okoronkwo (2008) asserts about black males and how fatherlessness puts them at risk of offending.

The findings also demonstrates that all of the factors mentioned in the literature review in some shape or form contributed to knife and gun crime among young black males, however factors that emerged frequently throughout the interviews were fatherless family structures, self image which is linked to revenge and respect and black male's relationship with the police. In terms of preventive measures, many suggested that the youth need to be feed with information on such crime and the consequences by their parents and education system, although in terms of group preventive, everyone needs to partake for knife and gun crime to stop it happening. However prevention of fatherless families is one that seems difficult to be solved easily because as it seems to be a problem beyond control and no laws to prevent divorce or prevent people from having children in unstable relationships. Self image is another difficult factor to prevent because the culture is part of the personality and to change the image is to change ones mindset, which is difficult. Therefore young black male's mentality is a phenomenon that will have to be worked on from early childhood if attitudes towards carrying out such crimes are to change. In regards to the police and young black males, relationship could possibly work better if the police can see them as friends; this will help to build trust and openness to information.

Conclusion

The mini study focused on investigating the causes of knife and gun crime amongst young black males, this was achieved by conducting focus group interviews with twenty black and five mixed race male youths. The main causes raised in the literature were fatherless families, self image, relationships with police, education system and negative influences. Other factors leading to crime brought to our knowledge by the participants in the study include the flaws in the criminal justice system, inability of children to defend themselves, and the problem of drugs. These factors are considered the root causes of knife and gun crime in the inner city areas of London. The second part of the study which looked at ways in which knife and gun crime could be prevented, suggested by the participants, is that knowledge on such crimes should be made compulsory in schools and shared at home. Preventive measures were discussed such as stop and search, which according to one of the participants, can be effective in preventing the youth from carrying knives and guns. However, it is important to note that this is an on-going research, which is in its early stage.

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RESTRUCTURING NIGERIAN TERTIARY (UNIVERSITY) EDUCATION FOR BETTER PERFORMANCE

Abstract

This study assesses the goals of university level of education, namely, development of high level manpower, scholarship and community service, and found that universities have not been able to achieve close to average. Problems range from social, political, financial as well as personnel issues. Specifically, they include problems of infrastructure, funding, staffing, record management and external interferences. Results include low quality outputs, poor state of infrastructure, poor international competitiveness, and hence the search for strategies to reconstruct and restructure rebuild the system to respond favourably to novel challenges of development. To redeem the system, the study prescribes that student and staff personnel needs be taken as priorities from henceforth. Also, inter national collaboration for students and staff exchanges, and expansion of access to qualified candidates, among others, be prioritised.

Introduction

Tertiary education is the education given after secondary education in colleges of education, polytechnics, monotechnics, universities and other institutions offering correspondence courses (FRN, 2004). According to the document, the goals of tertiary education encompass the development of relevant high level manpower, development of intellectual capability of individuals and acquisition of physical and intellectual skills. Others are to promote and encourage scholarship as well as community service. Tertiary educational institutions pursue these goals through teaching, research, generation and dissemination of knowledge which they achieve through a variety of programmes such as certificate, diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate courses.

Specifically, university education contributes to the production of high level manpower in diverse professional callings as dictated by national development requirements. The goals of university education also focus on inculcation of community spirit in the students through projects and action research.

The practice of tertiary education in Nigeria so far has not met the expectations of the above goals and objectives due to a number of factors such as limited infrastructure, poor funding, poor staffing, poor record keeping and socio-political interferences. These problems have resulted in low quality outputs, lack of international competitiveness and comparability of outputs. This pitiable and unacceptable condition has necessitated the investigation into how the Nigerian university education system can be restructured in order to meet the expectations of the stakeholders.

The origin of higher education in Nigeria, according to Oni (1997), is traceable to the establishment of Yaba Higher College, YHC (now Yaba College of Technology) in 1932. YHC was heavily criticised for subjecting its candidates to substandard curricula which were meant to produce subordinate officers to the

European expatriates who supervised the programmes and their products. Again, each programme was to last six to seven years, about twice the length of time a person needed to graduate from a first degree university course and, almost twice the length of time used by their European bosses to graduate. Unfortunately, the diploma certificates awarded were not accredited to any university in Britain.

This necessitated the agitation and clamour for a true higher institution of university status and the setting up of the Commissions of Higher Education in West Africa in 1943. There was the Elliot Commission which was to report on the organisation and facilities of the existing centres of higher education in British West Africa and to make recommendations regarding future university development in that area. Then, there came the Asquith Commission which wrote the minority report out of the Elliot Commission Report.

Following political independence in 1960, government noted the non-indigenous status of the existing University College, Ibadan (UCI) and started setting up what can be called indigenous higher educational institutions. This started with the establishment of the University of Nigeria at Nsukka in 1960. In 1962, there came the University of Lagos, Akoka, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and the University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile – Ife) and others (Amadi, 2011). As at 2011, there were 36 federal, 37 state and 45 private universities in Nigeria making 118 away from the three indigenous universities in 1963.

Problematic Issues in the Management of Nigerian Universities

So many factors converge as bottlenecks hindering effective and efficient performance of Nigerian universities. For a better and broader treatment of these issues, we discuss government factors (including those of regulatory bodies which are agents of government), social factors; technological issues, university internal factors and family issues.

Government and Regulators

Government

- *Inadequate budgetary allocation (underfunding)*: Over the years, government has grossly underfunded education to the extent that their effort falls far below the UNESCO recommended annual budget proportion of 26%. The consequences are grave. The report of the Presidential Task Force Team on Education published in May, 2011 states inter alia: “education budget, as a proportion of total federal spending is some 7.6% (average from 2008-2010). It is roughly 5% of total federal capital budget and 11% of total recurrent budget. There is a decreasing trend over the years” (pp. 36-37).

- *Policy inconsistency or policy somersault*: Generally, we note some discontinuity in national policy between one political dispensation and the other. If one government starts an education programme or project, another incoming government will abandon it and start a new one which it may also not complete. There are, therefore, many abandoned projects. In some other cases lobbying and influences of political heavyweights and influential traditional rulers make government to backpedal on enunciated policies. This has made the federal government to lament policy inconsistency in the following words: ‘*policies have not always been given the chance to prove their effectiveness (or failure to do so), as*

uncoordinated changes tend to be dropped in and out in a haphazard manner, dictated by moods in place of reason. This is a practice that shocks (instead of guiding stakeholders and policy implementers) (FRN, 2011: 17).

- *Political Interference:* Party politics and personality clashes often make funding and implementation of educational policies difficult or impossible. In other cases, government engages in playing politics with the educational system to score political points. Renaming of educational institutions has often led to public resistance and disruption of academic activities. For example, government announcement on Democracy Day of May 29, 2012 renaming the University of Lagos to Moshood Abiola University led to a lot of protests both within and outside the University.

- *Localisation of academics and student admissions:* University education and management are supposed to be a universal (worldwide) phenomenon. This means that there is no rationale in limiting recruitment of staff and management officers to people from the contiguous communities of the university. This is common in Nigeria and this practice has resulted in low quality performance and inefficient operations. The problem also stretches into student admissions. According to Breton (2003), the world is moving towards universalisation of higher education and so he states that "... one of the essential components of the cultural world of university internationalization practitioners is how to improve student and professor mobility and give this its true meaning in today's world".

- *Inadequate infrastructure:* Poor funding, personal interest of management and high level of corruption have led to a state of inadequate infrastructure in most of the higher institutions in Nigeria and this has hindered adequate performance of Nigerian universities.

Regulators

Education regulators in Nigeria include the National Universities Commission (for Universities), the National Board for Technical Education, NBTE (for Polytechnics), the National Commission for Colleges of Education (for Colleges of Education) and the Federal Ministry of Education, as the overall controller of education in Nigeria. There is also the Teachers' Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) for the teaching profession while the NERDC regulates curriculum development and management. Problems emanating from these bodies include:

- *Poor Supervision and Monitoring:* Their accreditation exercises are often stage-managed and no efforts are made to put the made-up issues in place even after the exercise is completed.

- *NUC imposes a carrying capacity rule:* This means that the regulator defines the number of students that a university could admit during each session based on the facilities available. This limits the number of students admissible with a large overflow of un-admitted candidates. The Committee of Vice Chancellors (CVC) has not been very helpful in this matter.

- *Inadequate manpower resulting in ineffective regulation of the teaching profession* has left many uncertificated teachers teaching in Nigeria's tertiary education system especially in universities.

- Curriculum reform lethargy has left the Nigerian system less dynamic and apparently insensitive to curriculum matters due to the boogey of bureaucracy on the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC).

Examination Bodies

Nigeria's examination bodies for various levels of education include: the West African Examinations Council, WAEC, the National Examinations Council, NECO (for the secondary school level), the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) for entrance examinations into tertiary institutions. As feeder institutions to the university level, failures on the part of these institutions have negatively reflected on the university system. Some of the problems include: examination malpractices (and leakages), inadequate monitoring of administration of examinations, especially in corruption-ridden 'special centers' and in secondary schools whose outputs feed the university system with half-baked or poorly-prepared candidates.

The Society: Negative Impact on Students

University staff and students live in and relate with the society. The life pattern and behavior of the society will surely influence university performance. The problem here starts from before the candidate is admitted. Most secondary school students (who are inputs into the university system) get polluted by the society and the environment as well as by family and peer group factors. Some of these problems include: examination malpractice, lesbianism and gay life, academic laziness, unwillingness to study, bullying and fastidiousness, unbridled desire for money and immorality, cultism and intimidation of others, robbery and stealing, telling lies and escapist mindset. Some others are results/documents falsification, indiscipline, indecent dressing and corrupt music, pornography and cyber crimes.

University Internal Factors

These internal factors manifest in lack of trust and regard for university authorities, pressure from teaching and non-teaching staff, inadequacy of facilities such as libraries, laboratories, textbooks, un-conducive learning environment, over-crowding, dirty hostels, etc. We also have compromises on academic standards, cultism and cult violence, wrong placement of students into unwanted courses, peer pressure and deficient curricula which have negatively impacted on products' employability after school.

Technological Factors

Prominent are dangers of misuse of information communication technologies to commit fraud and other unprofitable foibles common to youths, distractive and negative life styles (habits). Others include: pornography, cyber crime, documents manipulation and forgery.

Family Problems

These cause poverty leading to gullibility, naivety on the part of the younger ones, desperation for admission which leads to crime, over petting and pampering, low quality primary and secondary schools attended, high expectations from

students, poor monitoring and control, nonchalant attitude to curbing adolescents' excesses and forcing students to study some courses they do not like.

Causes of Poor Research, Poor Performance of University Graduates and Non Recognition of Nigeria's Academia Effort

1. **Shallow Teaching:** Lecturers are not deep; they rush through lectures and do not bother whether their students understand what was taught or not.

2. **No Monitoring of Lecturers' Teaching:** Lecturing is a teaching activity. Academic freedom does not imply that a university teacher does what he likes in the class. There is too much freedom to the extent that lecturers' class activities are not checked, assessed or monitored. The consequence stares us in the paper.

3. **Over-crowding / Overpopulated Lecture Rooms:** Lecturing facilities - classrooms, teaching aids, instructional materials as well as class/building fittings-lighting etc, are not adequate. There are not enough lecture theaters. Public address systems are almost non-existent. The lecturer most of the time is frustrated with the excess student number swooping into lecture rooms during lectures. Dearth of facilities may make some students not attend lectures when they could not locate lecture venues especially once there is a shift in venue.

4. **Lack of Practical Demonstration:** At the secondary school level, those who take the General Certificate of Education [GCE] examinations settle for alternative to practical as against the practical tests taken by regular SSCE candidates. This handicap is extended to the Nigerian university system where science and technology students neither use nor touch, not to talk of practicing with, practical equipment. It may therefore not be a surprise that a student who made first class in chemistry may not know well how to titrate. Graduates of agriculture and related areas may not have visited nor practiced in a farm all through tertiary education.

5. **Lack of Housing (living) Facilities:** The reality that some lecturers and students live too far away from their universities and have to shuttle to school every day and back cannot make for a credible academic exercise. Lectures in big cities like Lagos, Abuja, Kano and Port Harcourt suffer untold hardship in their effort and desire to go to work. Some, especially in Lagos leave their places of residence about 5 am everyday to arrive at the university about 9 am, lagged out, tired, wearied, hungry, etc, what will such a person teach? At about 3/4pm he has started rushing home to arrive about 9/10 pm. When will he prepare the lectures, do research and publish? Yet, if you do not publish, you perish in the university system. This same situation applies to students some of who sponsor themselves and could only attend classes once/twice a week.

6. **No Gown-Town Relationship:** Industry operators do not have any formal relationship with the universities. It is therefore almost impossible for the universities to assess the performance of their graduates. There are no labour exchange programmes organized by universities. There is no proper manpower planning system in the country. It is as nobody cares nor is anybody in charge of anything in Nigeria. Most manpower data appear to be "cooked data".

Unfortunately, one of the accreditation criteria set out by the National University commission for universities is the report from employers. Little is received here and what comes in is unreliable. The employers are not sensitized.

Otisi (2011) in a piece published by the Guardian x-rayed the effort of Petroleum Trust Development Fund at improving teaching and learning in Nigeria's petroleum industry. The programme is a 6 month diploma broken into two 3-month phases, one phase will be done in a selected university in Europe while the other will be in Nigeria. Essentially, the programme targets practical monitored teaching and research as a teaching practice. The teacher's registration council of Nigeria is challenged by Otisi's article to make alive its mandate of regulating and monitoring the teaching profession in Nigeria. It needs to develop feasible practical modalities to be put in place immediately.

Requirements for Sound and Effective Academic Work in the University System

For a university to be so called and respected, certain conditions and facilities have to be in place. Failure to meet these conditions and set in place these facilities will cause problems to arise. In the Nigerian university system, different types of services are expected from the system, including:

Student academic services (or student academic needs)

To enhance the teaching-learning activity and improve student's learning and academic performance, the following things need to be put in place as part of students' academic services: lecture halls, good lecturers, well-furnished and well-equipped libraries, well-equipped laboratories (for sciences), technology workshops, mini-markets or supermarkets, business laboratories, (for economics, business education), agricultural demonstration centres and agricultural farms and practical entrepreneurial apprenticeship experience while in school.

Practical training of students of agriculture can be carried out in demonstration farms for piggyery, fishery, snailry, grass-cutter farming, etc. Entrepreneurship centres can be used to teach students to learn carpentry, furniture making, events management, fashion designing, interior decoration, computer appreciation, metal works, sign writing and other crafts.

Staff Academic Services (Needs)

Libraries well stocked with relevant and current materials, laboratories, demonstration schools (for Adult Education Lecturers), agricultural extension stations, effective research facilities, ICT skill-acquisition centres, demonstration centres for journalism and broadcasting, research fairs, university-industry partnerships to market research outputs and patenting research products.

Non-Academic Services: For Students

General students' welfare include – hostels, catering, safety/security, unionism/activism, work-study programme, recreation and sporting facilities, social interactions, social networking, counseling, student outreaches – debating, conferences, facility visits/excursions, religious issues, etc.

Non-academic Staff Services

These are enhancers for greater productivity and they include accommodation (within and around the campus), medicals, transportation, family welfare, recreation

and social networking, consultancy, preparation for retirement and pension, handsome remuneration and welfare packages, home ownership programmes, cooperative facilities, upfront bulk payment of allowances, etc.

General Services (Physical Infrastructure)

We expect focus on infrastructure such as buildings, aesthetics, sanitation, civil works, event centers, roads, electricity, water, healthcare, recreation and sports etc. We also expect supporting facilities like business centers, supermarkets, trading malls, etc, to be set up in areas close to campuses to enable the university community have easy access to them.

Suggestions, Solutions and Policy Options

Having diagnosed and analysed the problems of university education and management in Nigeria, we attempt suggesting ways of improving the situation, especially by generating new ideas that can be put into practice to improve the system.

Education franchising/cross border education

This concept means that entrepreneurs in education or existing educational institutions can enter into franchise agreements with renowned and specialized institutions abroad to hoist their banners in Nigeria, bear their name and operate according to their tenets and principles. For example, the Imperial College London can allow a Nigerian University to use its name and become Imperial College Nigeria. The College is renowned for escapades in engineering and so it will bring that escapade to bear on its franchise in Nigeria. The advantages of this include:

- a. Improvement in quality of education and training especially in the areas of specialization of the franchisor.
- b. The standard of education will be improved and international recognition of Nigerian University graduates will be enhanced. Also, staff quality and standards will be enhanced. The arrangement will, in no small measure, reduce the army of un-admitted but qualified candidates waiting for admission.
- c. It will also create opportunities for collaboration and exchange of staff and students among universities. It will also create job opportunities both within and outside Nigeria especially with countries of franchisors.
- d. E-learning will be enhanced and promoted; universities will be able to meet the objectives of MDGs and will help reduce social tension.

Introduction of access programmes

The problem of backlog of qualified but not admitted candidates in Nigerian university system can be alleviated if universities can introduce and properly manage access programmes such as pre-degree and diploma programmes. Candidates can be surer of formal university admission through this mop up outlets.

Remedial programmes

Universities can also invest in remedial programmes where they properly/adequately prepare candidates for admission. This will solve the problems

created by inadequate and poor teaching learning in secondary schools. It will also save parents and children from patronizing unscrupulous education vendors and hawks in 'special centres' who trade in marks and fake certificates.

Establishing more institutions

University education facilities should be expanded. A situation of admitting less than 20% of over 1 million candidates sitting for JAMB examinations annually is unacceptable. It is a time bomb waiting to explode. Conditions for establishing universities should be made easier. Better recognition should be accorded other levels of tertiary education to create veritable platforms for absorption of teeming population of waiting candidates. In all, however, regulatory authorities should ensure that quality and standards are not compromised.

Re-orientation and counseling

Students need to change their disposition towards education. The present "cash and carry" attitude must be stopped and the spirit of honesty and hard work instilled in them. The principle of KYC (Know Your Customer/Client) must be imbibed by universities. They need to effectively monitor the attitudes, inclinations and behaviours or lifestyles of their students so as to nip in the bud their slips into bad behavior. University managers should make the campus environment busy and active to get students engaged to distract them from negative inclinations.

Regular counseling programmes should be organized to inculcate good habits into students. It is excess freedom and idleness together with the non-challant attitude of university administration that makes some students to stray. The situation is akin to absentee parents who do not have time enough to monitor and guide their children and wards so they gradually go wild and become ultimately uncontrollable.

Work-study programme

Universities should continue to expand the work-study programme whereby some, especially indigent students, are given the opportunity to work in the university while schooling. This will help them generate money to pay their fees and meet other expenses. The student's academic standing must be considered in this programme.

Universities as labour exchange

Universities can act and operate as labour exchange. In this arrangement, universities act as data bank for information on prospective employers and employees. Employers supply information on the number, type/quality and experience of prospective employees they want. Applicants also give their data and their qualifications, types of jobs expected and preferences of job location or industry. Universities match these two groups for a fee and the society is better off.

More efficient education access and utilization of available facilities

The Makerere University Model (in Uganda) operates on a 24-hour system whereby students are taught day and night in shifts. The day shift runs from 8am to 6pm while the night shift runs from 8pm till dawn. In this process, different sets of lecturers teach in the different shifts in the affected programmes with few

exceptions. Teaching and learning assistants take care of the environment during the intervals. The benefits/implications of this model include the following:

- a. Higher (university) education is able to expand access, increase student admission prospects, and reduce the backlog of qualified waiting candidates/applicants.
- b. The model increases efficient utilization of available facilities which ordinarily would have lain idle in periods of non-use.
- c. It reduces the stress and cost of seeking university admission by candidates and their sponsors respectively.
- d. It generates more income for the university system.
- e. It creates more employment opportunities for the country.
- f. It reduces the tendency of falling into the traps of education touts in special centres vending admission and mushroom universities.

The implications of the above model are the need for constant/reliable power supply, assurance of safety and security, expansion and regular maintenance of infrastructure, effective monitoring and quality assurance by the education regulators, like the NUC, and FME. It also emphasises the need for accommodation of staff and students within and around the university environments to enhance quality and efficiency of the system.

Tri-semester admission system

In Kampala International University (KIU) in Kampala, Uganda, student admission is done everyday for qualified candidates in their areas of choices. The admission lists are now streamed into *January to March Intake*, *April to July Intake* and *August to November Intake*. Each of the streams begins its own academic semester and runs concurrently with others until they all conclude their programmes and graduate. All the benefits of the *Makerere Model* are also obtainable in the *KIU model*.

Free mobility of students and academics

Nigerian universities system should be restructured in such a way that if the need arises, a student can transfer his credits from one university to the other within and beyond the country especially those with similar systems of education like those using the British system of education namely Ghana, Tanzania, Canada, Uganda, *etc.* This collaborative arrangement can also include staff mobility and exchange in teaching, research, technical exchange and community service.

Student allocation to hostels

One thing that can create attachment for students is to be allocated halls of residence whether they physically live in them or not. This model, practiced at the University of Ibadan, makes every registered student to become psychologically attached to the system. With identity card, a student can always go to his assigned hall of residence to play games, enjoy recreation, use the Hall Library or Reading Room, use the lobby, enjoy sporting activities and visit or interact with other students who sleep in the halls, *etc.* The belief here is that students can use these facilities during examination periods and perform better academically especially in the case of off-campus students. Nigerian university authorities are advised to adopt

the model as it will reduce incidences of cultism and unnecessary distraction for students.

Conclusion

Universities as *ivory towers* and communities of thinkers reside to advance the cause of the society and of the society of people is in serious dilemma, but not totally irredeemable. No serious person desires to get to the north by travelling south. Nigeria should halt the current trend of counting numbers (124 universities in 2012), which portends growth without development. Enough of flimsy excuses and poor attention given to university development in a third world country like Nigeria which is not redeemed by mere wishful thinking. *If wishes were horses...*

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KEEPING ABREAST OF CONTINUOUS CHANGE AND CONTRADICTORY DISCOURSES

Abstract

In the light of new developments for the teaching profession, teacher education requires constant adjustments. In Canada, education is a provincial responsibility and varies across the country, and with national specialists associations also dictating guidelines, we have to satisfy competing expectations. This presents a number of challenges.

The Ministry of Education of Ontario advocates ‘success for all learners’ with the overall functions of education aiming at supporting individuals, society and cultures, all in a tight weave with newcomer communities involved in schools. This agenda is dictated by our immigration culture and the need to be inclusive of diverse learners. There is also a national think-tank deciding on future directions for the country and they recently recommended a move from an emphasis on inter-personal intelligence, i.e. getting along in groups, to placing more emphasis on intra-personal intelligence with the objective of having all persons develop their own independent strengths. After a look at contextual issues we present a number of aspects that surfaced in a teacher education course. We account for the different agendas in our suggestions for improved outcomes.

Introduction

In my roles as researcher, consultant for the Ministry in program development and teacher educator, I am interested in developing students’ maximum potential and prepare them, not merely for coping by giving them skills and strategies for day to day lesson delivery, but more importantly to broaden their views so they can enhance their teaching in the future. I am often confronted to contradictory discourses and behaviors at odds with what people believe they are doing. In the province of Ontario in Canada a combination of regularly changing official documents determine the mandatory curriculum. As well nationally, there is a think-tank, the Conference Board of Canada that looks at current situations and announces needs. Immigration policies also impact education. Add new technologies to the mix, and we are experiencing an upheaval.

Satisfactory results in practicum placements in schools are also a program component. Through these, students can try out new roles, self-reflect on how they manage with feedback from their classroom associate teacher.

The most crucial phase in this development is relative to how well they integrate and internalize all the different facets of the expected transformation to becoming a professional. Because of concerns, the Ministries of Education and Training, Colleges and Universities’ Consultations on Ontario’s Enhanced Teacher Education Program delineated a Mandatory Core Program Content after several consultation sessions (Ministry of Education, 2012). The first of such components is ‘*current Ontario curriculum guidelines - content and application*’ referring to the Ontario curriculum including pedagogy, instruction and content. There are indeed a number

of curriculum guidelines teachers are to familiarize themselves with. In addition, they are responsible for being aware of '*emerging trends in education*'. This includes understanding people's mental health issues; preparing for transitions, including from school to university or into apprenticeships or the workforce; making use of technology as a teaching tool, including environmental education, media and financial literacies. Another set of competences is connected to '*current teaching knowledge, skills and strategies*' and students are expected to be well versed in these. In relation to such aspects, it appears that more skills that are usually to be expected from graduate students are listed: for instance, skills for research and data analysis for increased reflectivity; ability to carry out inquiry-based research, data collection and assessment in order to be better able to meet student needs; ability to articulate standards of practice for teaching; experience to transpose the knowledge gained about theories of learning and teaching methods into action. As well '*student engagement and learning-human development and learning*' is included in the recommendations. Future teachers need skills in classroom management and organization, plus child and human development.

Theoretical context

Given this situation in which these future teachers find themselves, the ability to judge takes on major importance in meaning-making processes (Kant, 1892). In teaching contexts, empathy is key according to Petrovic et al. (2008). Apprehending knowledge in given ways is important in terms of influencing the outcome depending on people's approaches to learning. Social class works to create characteristic 'kinds of people' in characteristic 'worlds' (Gee, 2002). The problem is to make people cross-functional and somewhat spontaneously re-align around new communities of practice (Olson, 2003; Barton & Tusting, 2005). Apprehending knowledge this way is important during group work in terms of influencing the outcome depending on the perspective taken. From system's theory we gleaned important notions around communication, especially about its operation through the selection of a limited amount of information for the purpose of reducing complexity (Luhmann, 1984).

We have to favor subject matter associations with people from very different backgrounds trying to connect their knowledge bases. All these notions provide an understanding of the elements at work. Solutions will have to come about through re-aligning. Like in the business world we need to thoroughly understand and play out representations in an attempt at understanding the different markets, their demands and their multi-faceted possibilities, in our case applied to people (Senge, 1994). However, keeping in mind Luhmann's research on social systems, we felt assured that new systems can be created if need be, without anything being lost, just through reorganization. We also kept in mind that each class in our study functioned like a system with a distinctive identity that was constantly reproduced in its communication and depended on what was considered meaningful or not.

Along the same lines of thinking, a system can emerge from an overly-complex environment, then use and rely on resources from that environment (Senge). In our case, students in a given class came from various subject specialties (their environment) and they used in the new group, resources they were familiar with from that environment. For the sake of economy of means, control of internal energy

is required, if one is to expect observable results according to Senge. A widening of vision requires getting rid of mind-sets and old habits of mind. In addition, one person's view can no longer be accepted as dominant, as for a class to fully subscribe to change, everyone present necessarily has to feel that his or her views are also represented (Senge, 1994). This entails making dialogue transformational and yet enabling all the members of the group to be included, aware of individual positioning as well as of possibilities for re-alignment, keeping in mind the global perspective of all the facets, facing new truths and possibilities. With the fast increase in interaction systems (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, Google, etc.) in our globalizing world, we have to plan socio-culturally appropriate responses to situations. The latest research findings on emotional intelligence, which according to Grafman (2009) and Petrovic et al. (2008), have (indicate that it has) both experiential and strategic characteristics, add further interest to the question of representation. As these aspects come into play in a multifaceted way, I needed to keep focused during course delivery and this was made possible by adopting a stance in line with from "situated cognition" theory (Barton & Tusting, 2005).

Background to the discussion

The Ontario Ministry of Education advocates 'success for all learners', relying on scaffolding, multiple integrations and differentiated learning. Education has to provide support to individuals, society and cultures. This agenda is dictated by our immigration culture and the need to be inclusive.

Program overview

These future teachers, experienced in diverse practices that do not necessarily subscribe to what I try to achieve in the education course, need to develop their ability to judge in establishing a weighting scheme in their professional practice. As a basis we can take into account Cranton's (2006) suggestions for checking on reflexivity. The author proposes to look at reflective questions respectively in a psychological, sociolinguistic, epistemic, moral-ethical, philosophical and aesthetic context. Cranton asks the following questions related to psychological aspects: What do I believe about myself? How have I come to have this perception of myself? Why should I question this premise? As concerns sociolinguistic views he proposes to examine respectively aspects having to do with social norms, how these have been influential in the specific case and why they are important to the person concerned. He questions knowledge as regards its quantity, its source and its usefulness. His questions about moral-ethical aspects center round the identification of one's values, finding their origin and their importance. As regards philosophical thinking he suggests to question worldview, how it came about and why it was maintained. Aesthetic judgment is examined along the lines of what a person finds beautiful, how views of beauty might change and the reason for appreciating beauty.

Practical aspects

Two major components of the teacher education program include the ability to use and teach the second/foreign language and behavior consistent with that of an autonomous professional. Since my students will be second-language teachers, they

also need to have advanced communication skills. They will need to convey ideas, issues and new knowledge in a variety of ways to their students. They have to convey their thinking accurately and with confidence. They will also have to summarize. This entails mobilization of knowledge in the second language in which they have expertise. In the context of professionalization one would expect to observe a respect of professional standards, integrity and a strong sense of responsibility. In completing their education program the future teachers should show their knowledge and willingness to abide by the recommended guidelines. One would expect a developing professional to display abilities in critical thinking and independent inquiry. Also, taking into account recommendations from the Conference Board of Canada, in order to engage in lifelong learning, people need independent thinking. A sense of initiative is required for being academically and professionally current. Moreover, besides intellectual curiosity these developing teachers need to become responsible professionals, which require transferable skills that they can use when faced with complex problems.

Proposed pathways

So how can we get people to put on new lenses and accommodate in their mind's eye, wiping away some false assumptions and adjusting to the latest requirements? In the past, there was a tendency to rely on group-think to find solutions and implement change but now the Conference Board of Canada the national think-tank in charge of giving future directions for the country, identified a strong need to develop independent thinking and on the spot problem solving skills. This also applies in the case of the professionals in this study. They recommended a move from an emphasis on inter-personal intelligence, getting along in groups, to more emphasis on intra-personal intelligence with each person developing independent strengths. Often, in intercultural settings, researchers identified a sense of disorientation and in turn a person had to learn to cope alone, not uncommon in Canada. However, as this takes time and can be debilitating, I advocate another possible approach, encouraging self-examination, a solution that is also proposed by other researchers. Contrasting internalized assumptions with new aspects of expected behaviors is often very productive in effecting change. For instance these future teachers have been students in language classes and often also have observed traditional teaching during their practicum placements. This in itself causes problems because of the habituation that has set in, and I have the uneasy task to get them out of their comfort zone.

A look at new approaches to learning, points to major changes taking place today at an ever-increasing pace (Ministry of Education, 2012; Myers, 2002; Olson, 2003). A global knowledge mobilization is taking precedence. Major questions have to be posed relative to the positioning of the different constituencies within this web of networks being created and constantly re-adjusted (Archibugi & Lundvall, 2001). The main question is how to become cross-functional and willing to transfer across academic cultures. Sub-questions are, can the shape of people's dialogic awareness be changed by setting up a new logic, and can a spontaneous alignment around new communities of practice help provide the answers we are searching for? The domain of change allows a deep learning cycle. The changes that emerge can be found at the level of aptitudes and capacities, connected to new awareness-raising, to increased

sensitivity and should bring about new attitudes and beliefs. With all this in mind in this study, collaborative work was introduced in the course in an attempt to uncover what the learning organization framework could bring to students with a specialized background in many different disciplines. In addition, for the sake of increasing the information-sharing network, students were told they could do this through Facebook.

We looked at these different aspects through an observation study in two teacher education courses. Notes were made in daily journaling throughout the course during the current academic year.

Results

All in all, I observed knowledge representations stemming from various levels of awareness, various backgrounds and prior knowledge, various perceptual perspectives and different abilities to negotiate difficulty having to do with preparation and as well as their comfort levels in French L2 use or in language use in general.

One group (G2) stood out as representative of group members who see and do things differently. This group clearly looks at knowledge from a more open perspective if we refer to their mention of collaboration between speakers, yet it also appears that they have a dominating narrow perspective as regards language teaching, a representation that could be due in part because they were faced with low achievers during their practical school placements or that they have experience with and relate mostly to learners at a lower beginning level and perhaps concentrated in their dialogues on how to cater to such learners' needs. In the last instance, this question could indicate a pessimistic attitude on the part of the members of this group as regards the ability of schools to promote success in second language learning. Another group (G1) appeared not to share the views of other groups, which was problematic. The deviations noted in G1 seem to stem from a lack of engagement and only surface learning took place or perhaps they did not read the assigned readings and could therefore only discuss topics in general terms and rather vaguely, although we found that their use of French was fluent. Did this language ability make them overconfident to the point of not engaging into deep learning during their discussion of theoretical contents? Another group (G3) displayed different attitudes towards knowledge. They reported disbelief regarding knowledge gain from sources outside the class readings and they do not trust the integration of language skills for learning but rather imply that each language skill has to be practiced separately. Is this indicative of their personal learning styles, their attitude towards learning and maybe limitations in their negotiating of difficulties, or perhaps a gap in prior knowledge and insufficient preparation? Maybe a more traditional attitude towards language teaching is reflected here due to various cultural influences. Therefore we could also consider that openness of mind or lack thereof is another cause for deviations in representations.

Robinson's (1998) views explain this latter concern as he describes culture as a "system of symbols and meanings" and explains that "past experience influences meaning which, in turn affects future experience, which in turn affects subsequent meaning, and so on" (p. 11). The same applies to knowledge.

Conclusion

In this article I report on the results following an attempt to be all encompassing during course delivery, while at the same time taking into account differentiation. This is a tall order in a class with so many different student backgrounds, motivation levels, irregular attendance and diverse needs.

Will new technologies provide sufficient variety in access to information and enough variation and variability as to allow tweaking teaching contents to enable students with vastly diverse approaches from the 'main group' to gain from instruction and fill all the gaps? We also have to ask ourselves if students can be made responsible enough to account for their own individual work, by using technology, after listening to lectures and participating in discussions, thus bootstrapping crystallization of thought, and not merely reporting group discussion results, although the debate was possibly held only within a group? With no imposed final exam, only time will tell after they find employment and where staying on the job becomes the selection criterion.

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PROCESS MANAGEMENT IN UNIVERSITIES – RECENT PERSPECTIVES IN THE CONTEXT OF QUALITY MANAGEMENT ORIENTED TOWARDS EXCELLENCE

Abstract

The paper aims at providing a survey of the latest trends that exist nowadays in higher education systems, with direct reference to Romania's experience. It seeks to study the results obtain in terms of higher education and the impact that these results have in respect to Romania's development, in the general framework of global crisis.

In order to analyze the development of higher education at an international and national level, a systematic literature review of journal articles mainly based on higher education processes is conducted. Furthermore, our interest mainly concerns the issues regarding process management in universities, seen as a recent perspective in the context of quality management oriented towards excellence. Standardization of process management in higher education, as well as quality management oriented towards excellence trends are shown to contribute to the society's future development, in this case in Romania.

By finding key trends in terms of higher education process a general framework is created. Moreover, due to the belief that education, in general, is the key issue in any developed society in order to show its robust figures in terms of economical and social strengths, the paper seeks to provide clear solution for future development. Clarity and transparency in terms of rules and regulations in the higher education in Romania is needed, as well as quality assurance in this respect.

In terms of research limitations and research implications, due to the fact that we performed a case study on only one university, as with every case study, the process of generalization of our findings is limited.

At a practical implication level, the case study can be useful to other academics and researchers' interested in topics such as education, in general, higher education, economical and social issues. Clear indications and useful solutions of how to achieve a qualitative and competitive higher education system are given.

The paper provides a clear definition of what process management in higher education, as well as quality management oriented towards excellence in higher education are and which its implications are in nowadays society, with a general overview on the Romanian experience.

Keywords: Process Management, Quality Management, Excellence in Higher Education, Development, Economic and Social trends, Romania's experience

Introduction

Our research study suggestively entitled "*Process Management in Universities – Recent Perspectives in the Context of Quality Management Oriented towards Excellence*" focuses on the problems of education in the Romanian society, aiming at providing a survey of the latest trends that exist nowadays in higher education

systems, with direct reference to Romania's experience. It seeks to study the results obtain in terms of higher education and the impact that these results have in respect to Romania's development, in the general framework of global crisis.

Starting from the idea that higher education relies on the issue of lifelong learning, we strongly believe that lifelong learning represents the continuous building of skills and knowledge through the life of an individual; we believe that the process of continuous education is the key element that each and every society should be based on. For us, as professors and researchers, the idea of pursuing knowledge out of either personal or professional reasons, has always been a main trigger of our activity.

The subject of excellence in higher education and quality assurance are also very important in nowadays society, and due to this fact, we decided to focus also on them.

Literature review

Initial information resources were generated by performing a literature review search through academic and research well known data bases, such as ISI Web of Knowledge, Scopus, EBSCO, EconLit, REPEC, DOAJ, Cabell's, JSTORE, Science Direct, SpringerLink, ProQuest. Bibliographies were collected from a number of leading national and international specialists on the topic of education and lifelong learning. The primary source in terms of literature review was professional journals. It should be noted that the literature search focused on studies measuring the impact of lifelong learning and education system improvement mainly on students at the universities. Also, we focused on papers published in international conference proceedings, which took into account the topic of education and lifelong learning.

Process Management Analysis and Quality Management Oriented towards Excellence in Universities

Process Management Analysis

In contemporary society, business processes must be analyzed taking into account a few basic concepts, such as: (1) the definition of product and service quality, (2) process management, which is based on the element of "process", and (3) quality management and quality management system, characterized by elements such as: (a) quality assurance, (b) controlling quality, and (c) improving quality.

According to specialists' opinion, the term "process" means all the activities interrelated or the interacting activities which transform elements in input - output elements, as follows: the output of a process are inputs of other processes; processes an organization should be planned and should be carried out in controlled conditions to add value. However, the "process" is a sequence of interdependent and linked procedures which, at each stage, consume one or more resources (such as resources of time, energy, equipment, financial resources, and so on), in order to transform inputs (such as data, materials, components, and so on) into outputs. Outputs, in turn, are then input to the next stage until a predetermined goal or end result is reached (<http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/process.html>).

Moreover, the "process" is defined as having inputs, outputs and energy needed to transform inputs into outputs. A process takes time to realize the action is

associated. A process also requires a certain space for inputs and outputs and also for transformation of inputs into outputs (Dawis, Dawis & Koo, 2001).

Below we have presented the way of defining quality products and services, in order to understand the role and place of business process management under the guidance alone to generate performance in the organization (adapted from concepts belonging to David A. Garvin, 1984):

1. Orientation to perfection:
 - (a) Quality is a timeless entity, “absolute”, as perceived subjectively by each individual (Platon’s idealism);
 - (b) Quality cannot be measured.
2. Oriented to product or service:
 - (a) Overall quality is the quality characteristics of the product or service;
 - (b) Quality can be measured exactly;
 - (c) Quality is directly proportional to the cost.
3. Orientation process:
 - (a) Quality from the perspective of the organization;
 - (b) Quality is “compliance with specified requirements” (or “conformance to requirements” in the sense of Philip B. Crosby, see Crosby).
4. Cost orientation:
 - (a) Quality means performance at an acceptable cost.
5. User oriented:
 - (a) Quality is the property of being suitable for use (or “fitness for use” in the sense of J. M. Juran, see Bacivarov & Stoichițoiu, 2004).

Management processes can be analyzed, in general, two ways, as follows:

- The first point of view was that the entire business process management is planning and performance monitoring process. This term refers usually to the management of business processes and manufacturing (Becker, Kugeler & Rosemann, 2003).
- The second point of view was that the management processes are involved in the application of knowledge, skills, tools, techniques and systems to define, visualize, measure, control, report and improve processes in order to meet customers' requirements a profitable way (Thom, 2009).

Quality Management Oriented towards Excellence

The quality management is regarded as the process of coordinating all activities which directs and control the organization in terms of quality, which generally involves:

- ❖ Establishing the quality policy;
- ❖ Setting quality objectives;
- ❖ Quality planning;
- ❖ Controlling quality;
- ❖ Quality assurance;
- ❖ Improve quality.

Quality management means all management functions and activities involved in establishing the quality policy and its implementation through methods such as quality planning and quality assurance (including quality control). Quality

management system is a system which directs and controls the organization in terms of quality (Filip, 2005).

Taking into account the aspect of Total Quality Management (TQM), we can state below the quality management functions:

- ❖ Quality planning;
- ❖ Organization of the quality;
- ❖ The coordination of quality;
- ❖ Training of staff for the quality;
- ❖ Quality is controlling all process conducting surveillance activities and outcomes in quality assessment, the objectives and established standards in order to eliminate deficiencies and prevent their occurrence in subsequent processes;
- ❖ Quality assurance represents all predetermined and systematic activities carried out in order to give adequate confidence that an organization will meet the quality requirements:
 - Internal quality assurance;
 - External quality assurance;
- ❖ Improving quality refers to actions throughout the organization to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of activities and processes in order to achieve greater benefits for both the organization and its customers part of quality management focused on increasing the organization's ability to meet the quality:
 - Effectiveness: the extent to which planned activities are realized and planned results are achieved;
 - Efficiency: the ratio between results and resources used;
 - Traceability: the ability to retrieve the history, application or location of that which is taken into account.

Current guidelines on quality management systems refer to:

- a) Orientation techno-managerial:
 - Responsibility for quality lies primarily, leadership is important to improve processes;
 - “14 point program” of Deming, for example: models of quality management systems ISO 9000.
- b) Orientation rationalist – accountable:
 - Emphasis is on the individual responsibility of employees, their awareness;
 - Promotion of “zero deviation”;
 - Rationalist vision integration in individual behaviour, for example: Models of TQM quality management systems.

Discussion

Taking into account the notion of quality in higher education, we will state below a few relevant definitions, such as the following ones:

- Quality in higher education is able to describe the extent to which universities are capable of meet their standards and to fulfil their mission.

- Quality in higher education provides the possibility of calculating a series of indicators such as: drop-out rate, the ratio between the number of students and of teaching staff, etc.
- Quality in higher education implicates the idea of excellence, or maintaining the highest standards.
- Quality in higher educational process means creating a “good quality product”, obtained by defining a set of minimal standards.
- Quality in higher educational automatically implicates continuous transformation, as an increase in student skills.
- Quality in higher educational creates a link between the university and the society itself.

The main ideas concerning excellence in higher education and quality assurance in Romania are as follows:

- In the domain of educational services in higher education, there are many inconsistencies concerning the idea of quality, on performance standards and indicators.
- Quality culture refers to tasks, standards and responsibilities of individuals.
- Quality culture is strongly connected with excellence in higher education and should be analyzed as such.
- Competition among universities should be primarily based on the learning outcomes guaranteed by the programme curriculum, in concordance with students’ results.
- The content of university syllabi shows the consistency of the learning programs and provides a clear image on the potential learning outcomes.
- Due to the facts that in the higher education process students gain skills and personal competences, excellence in higher education and quality assurance are extremely important.
- Teaching staff’s training and high quality ensures the professional standards and the internationally competitive factors.
- The learning resources of the universities are very important.
- Another key issue is to attract representative employers or professional associations in the programme, in order to give students the possibility to be recruited during the studies they are currently performing.
- Internships are a crucial component of the curriculum and they are able to demonstrate the students’ skills and gained knowledge in the labour market.
- Universities have a variety of education forms applied in their programs, which also represents a success factor.

Conclusions

In terms of results, we feel confident enough in stating that Romania is ended on the right track, and can be considered nowadays ready to adapt itself to the lifelong learning requirements of the European Union’s programs. As arguments, the most frequent ones where related to the assumption that Romania, being part of the European Union, will be mainly forced to focus on the general requirements of an already opened and free labour market place.

Moreover, we strongly believe that Romania does not really invest in the young generation. The main arguments that we can bring into discussion are connected to

the ideas that by law the budget places are less and less each year (in the state education system), compared with the tax places, which clearly restricts access to university education for some individuals. In addition, the foreign exchange programs for students are more and more restrictive, and due to a limited and insufficient budget right from the start, only some students have access to these programs, and not in all cases the best of them; the normal scholarship and the merit scholarship provide a symbolic sum of money to real talented and hardworking students, meanwhile a student that has chosen in turn a part time job is clearly more advantaged, both in terms of money and in terms of future options for getting a better job in the future.

Another key issue that we believe is that Romania can be considered a lifelong learning continuously adapting society. In this matter, we still express a great concern while referring to the fact that Romania cannot be considered in their opinion a secure environment in terms of almost any law continuity, economic and business trends, education agenda and curricula, financial and labour market and the list can easily continue.

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GREEK PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE CONTEXT OF THE EUROPEAN LIFE LONG LEARNING AREA

Abstract

The present paper argues that the adoption of the Lisbon Strategy – in the context of the formulation of the European Lifelong Learning area, through the Open Method of Coordination – resulted in the expansion of the EU competencies into an area regulated, until very recently exclusively by the Member States – that is Compulsory Education. Accordingly, the paper aims at identifying the potential linkages between the policy priorities set at the European level and the respective legislative initiatives introduced by the Greek government in relation to Primary Education. Finally, it comments on the new roles attributed to the Greek PE in the context of the European LLL area.

Introduction

At Lisbon, in March 2000, the Heads of the EU Member States made decisions that have significantly affected European education and training systems ever since. Within a context characterized by upheaval resulting from globalization and the challenges of the new increasingly knowledge-based economy they adopted an optimistic, forward looking political discourse (Pepin, 2006, pp. 206-207) setting the ambitious task of drawing up a new economic, social and environmental strategy with the aim for the EU: “*to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion*” (Conclusions of the Lisbon European Council, 23 and 24 March 2000, point 5). The Lisbon strategy represents a broad coherent strategy with an overall medium-term objective -2020- and a structured, newly introduced, method for action and follow-up (Pepin, 2006, pp. 206-207), the Open Method of Coordination (OMC). The OMC seeks to underpin the process of reform and change, with its success being largely dependent on the determination shown by the Member States in putting it into practice at national level (Pepin, 2006, pp. 206-207).

At Lisbon, in March 2000, education saw the development of Community coordinated strategies for greater convergence of national policies (through the Education and Training 2010 programme) along with employment (through the European Employment Strategy, ESA) and the economy (through the Broad Economic Policy Guidelines, BPEGs). Accordingly, European education and training systems gained a new pivotal role in what concerns the renewed prosperity of the Union. What is more, the desire concerning the formulation of the European Life Long Learning (LLL) area in conjunction with the OMC provided the Council with both the context and the tools to design policies involving all types of education and training institutions in the Member States at all levels including

compulsory education¹, let alone all types of learning activities, formal, non-formal and informal.

At the same period of time, since 2000, education practitioners – mainly teachers and mid-level executives, at the Primary Education (PE) level² witnessed a number of developments concerning its structure, content of studies, their working status and initial and/or in-service training. In short, new types of Primary Schools have been introduced besides the conventional ones; new lessons have been added to the curriculum accompanied by innovative teaching methods with the use, mainly of ICT, while teachers and school principals do function in a completely differentiated context, in comparison to the period before 2000 facing a whole set of different challenges.

In this context, this paper investigates the relationship between the European policies (2000-2020) regarding LLL and the respective Greek policies at the PE level. Accordingly, after reviewing the recent developments at the European level, concerning, particularly, the formulation of the European LLL space it focuses on the legislative initiatives from the part of the Greek government regarding PE, with the aim to identify the potential linkages. Concluding remarks comment on the new roles attributed to the Greek PE in the context of the European LLL area.

The formulation of the European LLL space: Implications for the PE institutions in the Member States

The Feira European Council in June 2000, within the context of the Lisbon Strategy, asked the Member States, the Council and the Commission, within their areas of competence, to “*identify coherent strategies and practical measures with a view to fostering lifelong learning for all*” (Commission of the European Communities, 2001, p. 3). Some months later, as a result of the public consultation that followed, the Commission published its Communication entitled “*Making a European area of Lifelong Learning a Reality*” underlining the determination on the part of the EU to converge European policies to that area³.

The EU, in line with the strategy adopted in Lisbon⁴ in 2000, envisaged, through the economical use of existing resources, policies and, of course, the OMC⁵, to establish an area, with global appeal, characterized by the free movement among different learning settings⁶, jobs, regions and countries fostering all social inclusion, active citizenship, personal fulfillment and, mainly, employability – along with all various other, related with the economy and the market, benefits of LLL (Commission of the European Communities, 2001, p. 3). In fact, Member States, towards this end, agreed to develop and implement coherent and comprehensive policies incorporating all types of education and learning – formal, informal and

¹ Compulsory education was previously considered to belong exclusively within the jurisdiction of the Member States being directly related to the preservation of national identities.

² The main part of compulsory education in Greece lasting for six years.

³ It was actually the end of a process, which started in December 1993 when the Commission published the “White Paper on Growth, competitiveness and employment supported lifelong learning”.

⁴ The European Council of March 2005 reaffirmed the stance it had adopted on previous occasions, stating that ‘lifelong learning is a sine qua non if the Lisbon objectives are to be achieved’.

⁵ Mainly the Education & Training 2010 Programme.

⁶ As in contrast to educational ones.

non-formal⁷, at all levels “*from the cradle to the grave*” (Delors, 1996). They, thus, expanded their interest in the level of compulsory education and allowed for the design, the implementation and the monitoring of policies in this area to be made in European loci rather than the (sub-) national level, as was the case up until then⁸. In a few words, ever since 2000, within the OMC, the European Council, that is a European inter-governmental institution, decides on either policies and/or policy priorities incorporating schools at the level of compulsory education and the Commission, a supra-national institution monitors and reports on the level of implementation of these policies from the part of the Member States⁹ while the other European Institutions (the European Parliament, the European Court of Justice etc.) retain also their own special role in this process.

Particularly, a close inspection of European policy documents, since 2000, reveals seven policy areas where the EU focus has expanded to the level of PE:

a. Basic Competences¹⁰,

⁷ References to LLL should be understood in the light of the extended definition adopted by the Commission in 2001: “*all learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective*” (Commission of the European Communities, 2001, p. 9). In 2004, CEDEFOP produced an alternative, definition for LLL, rather, emphasizing its results: “*all learning activity undertaken throughout life, which results in improving knowledge, know-how, skills, competences and/or qualifications for personal, social and/or professional reasons*” while it also uses the term life-wide learning in the same context with the emphasis being laid on the learning settings: “*learning, either formal, non-formal or informal, that takes place across the full range of life activities (personal, social or professional) and at any stage*” (CEDEFOP, 2009, pp. 123-124).

⁸ It is the first time in the history of the European Policies in the field of education that a European Institution -even an intergovernmental one- may take decisions affecting education institutions at the level of compulsory education. In regard with the history of European policies in the field of education see also Asderaki, 2009; Pepin, 2006; Stamelos & Vassilopoulos, 2004.

⁹ In what concerns the present paper, the policy priorities regarding Primary Education Institutions in Greece should be looked up in the European policy documents of the past decade or so.

¹⁰ The 8 basic competences are: Communication in the mother tongue, in the foreign languages, mathematical competence and basic competences in sciences and technology, digital competence, learning to learn, interpersonal – intercultural and social competences and civic competence, entrepreneurship and cultural expression.

With regard to this policy priority see also:

- Commission of the European Communities 2002, Action Plan on Skills and Mobility, COM (2002) 72 Final
- Commission of the European Communities 2005, Proposal for a Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council on Key Competences for Lifelong Learning, COM (2005) 548 Final
- Council of the EU (2005), Conclusions on the role of the development of skills and competences in taking forward the Lisbon goals (2005/C 292/02)
- Commission of the European Communities 2006, Implementing the Community Lisbon Programme: Fostering Entrepreneurial Mindsets through Education and Learning, COM (2006) 33 Final
- Commission of the European Communities 2008, Improving Competences for 21st Century: An Agenda for European Cooperation on Schools, COM (2008) 425 Final
- Commission of the European Communities 2008, New Skills for New Jobs: Anticipating and Matching Labour Market and Skill Needs, COM (2008) 868 Final
- Commission of the European Communities 2009, Key Competences for a Changing World, COM (2009) 640 Final
- Commission of the European Communities 2009, Key competences for a changing world, SEC (2009) 1598
- Commission of the European Communities 2010, An Agenda for new skills and jobs - A European contribution towards full employment, COM (2010) 862 Final

- b. ICT¹¹,
- c. Languages¹²,
- d. Mobility¹³,
- e. Education Practitioners¹⁴,

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- Council of the EU (2010), Presidency Conclusions on competences supporting lifelong learning and the 'new skills for new jobs' initiative (2010/C 135/03)
 - Council of the EU, (2010), Conclusions on , Increasing the level of basic skills in the context of European cooperation on schools for the 21st century, OJ C 323, 30.11.2010, p. 11–14
 - EURRYDICE (2012), Developing key competences at school in Europe
 - EURYDICE (2012), Entrepreneurship at school in Europe
 - Commission of the European Communities 2012, Assessment of key competences in initial education and training - Policy guidance, SWD (2012) 371

¹¹ In relation to the particular policy priority, see also:

- Commission of the European Communities, 2001, The eLearning Action Plan – Designing Tomorrow's Education, COM (2001) 172 Final
- Commission of the European Communities, 2002, eEurope 2005 – An Information Society for All, COM (2002), 263 Final
- Commission of the European Communities, 2002, Proposal for a Decision of the European Parliament and of the Council adopting a multi-annual programme (2004–2006) for the effective integration of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in education and training systems in Europe (eLearning Programme), COM (2002) 751 Final
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¹² Both ICT and Language Learning comprise two of the eight basic competences. They do, however, also comprise discernible policy areas where the EU has really focused. In what concerns especially languages see also:

- Commission of the European Communities 2003, Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan 2004 – 2006, COM (2003) 449 Final
- Commission of the European Communities 2005, The European Indicator of Language Competence, COM (2005) 356 Final
- Commission of the European Communities 2005, A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism, COM (2005) 596 Final
- Commission of the European Communities 2007, Framework for the European survey on language competences, COM (2007) 184 Final
- Council of the EU (2011) Presidency Conclusions on language competences to enhance mobility, (2007/C 372/07)
- Commission of the European Communities 2012, Language competences for employability, mobility and growth, SWD (2012) 372

¹³ With regard to this policy area see also:

- Commission of the European Communities, 2004, Report on the follow-up to the Recommendation of the European Parliament and the Council of 10 July 2001 on mobility within the Community of students, persons undergoing training, volunteers and teachers and trainers, COM (2004) 21 Final
- Commission of the European Communities, 2006, The impact of COMENIUS school partnerships on participating school

¹⁴ In relation to this policy priority, see also:

- Commission of the European Communities 2005, Modernizing Education and Training: A vital contribution to prosperity and social cohesion in Europe, COM (2005) 549 Final
- Commission of the European Communities 2006, Efficiency and Equity in European Education and Training Systems, COM (2006) 481 Final
- Commission of the European Communities 2007, Improving the Quality of Teacher Education, COM (2007) 392 Final

- f. Early School Leaving¹⁵, and
- g. Quality of Education¹⁶.

In light of this information it is rather interesting to now focus on the Greek legislative initiatives referring to PE and identify the potential linkages with the EU policy priorities on the matter.

The Greek PE in the context of the LLL area

Within the last decade, many changes have been noted at the Primary Education level in Greece. These changes differ on their level of implementation due to various reasons – magnitude, economic effect, agreement at the local level etc. However, they all center on three main areas: a. the content of studies, b. the ways in which PE has been structured and organized, and c. the education practitioners.

In what concerns the content of studies in Greek PE, besides the traditional subjects, many of which such as Greek language, mathematics, science, civic education, have been retouched¹⁷, new ones have been added addressing, more or less, contemporary issues related mainly with the apprehension, on the part of the pupils, of the basic competences environmental education, arts, music. Particular attention has also been paid to ICT¹⁸ and modern languages¹⁹ with the aim being, in relation to the second, for the students to communicate in at least two foreign

- Commission of the European Communities 2008, Proposal for a Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council on the Establishment of a European Quality Assurance Reference Framework for Vocational Education and Training, COM (2008) 179 Final
- Commission of the European Communities 2010, A New Impetus for European Cooperation in Vocational Education and Training to Support Europe 2020 Strategy, COM (2010) 296 Final
- Commission of the European Communities 2007, Schools for the 21st century, SEC (2012) 1009
- Commission of the European Communities 2012, Supporting the Teaching Profession for Better Learning Outcomes, SWD (2012) 374
- Council of the EU (2007), Presidency Conclusions on Improving the Quality of Teacher Education, (2007/C 300/07)
- Council of the EU (2008), Presidency Conclusions on Preparing Young People for the 21st Century: An Agenda for European Cooperation on Schools, (2008/C 319/08)

¹⁵ In relation to tackling Early School Leaving see also:

- Commission of the European Communities 2007, Promoting Young People's Full Participation in Education, Employment and Society, COM (2007) 498 Final
- Commission of the European Communities, 2011, Tackling Early School Leaving, COM (2011) 18 Final
- European Parliament, Directorate General for Internal Policies, 2011, Reducing Early School Leaving in the EU

¹⁶ With regard to this policy area see also:

- Commission of the European Communities 2000, Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council on European Cooperation in the Quality Evaluation in School Education, COM (2000) 523 final
- Eurydice (2006), Quality Assurance in Teacher Education in Europe, Brussels: European Union.

¹⁷ The legislative initiatives concerning the updating of the traditional educational subjects are the following: MA 21072^A/C2/13-3-2003, MA 21072B/C2/13-3-2003

¹⁸ In relation to the particular legislative initiative see also:

- F.20/482/95210/C1/9-9-2003 MA: The content of the educational subject of «New Technologies» - all-day Primary School (In Greek)

¹⁹ In what concerns the particular legislative initiative see also:

- F.20/482/95210/C1/9-9-2003 MA: Teaching of the English Language from the third grade (In Greek)
- F.12/773/77094/28-7-2006: Teaching a second foreign language from the fourth grade in all-day Primary School (In Greek)

languages by the time they finish compulsory education. Finally, the content of studies in Greek PE is, also, enriched by various projects funded either directly or indirectly by the EU via Comenius, eTwinning, the FP7, the European Social Fund and implemented by education practitioners in Primary Schools²⁰.

The ways in which PE has been structured and organized have also been affected in the last decade. Elementary schools are now considered part of compulsory education, in an effort to tackle early school leaving, while attainment is provisioned to last for two years. Additionally, all-day elementary schools and primary schools, with extended time-schedules, have been introduced²¹. Provisions have also been made so as to tackle low school attainment and consequently early school leaving of children with disabilities²², ethnic minorities and poor social backgrounds. Particularly, the Ministry of Education has introduced the Zones of Educational Priority (ZEP), referring to geographical regions where the presence of ethnic minorities is intense and/or considered, mainly, blue collar. Within the various ZEPs in the country, Primary Schools or classes within them provide for pupils with disadvantages by the use of differentiated educational methods, ICT, extended time-schedule, tailor-made instruction and close contact with the family and the surrounding community²³. Finally, besides the conventional Primary schools, three new types of Primary schools with their own unique characteristics have been introduced. The first, Primary Schools with a Unified Restructured Educational Programme²⁴, incorporate new educational subjects, with the aim to enhance the apprehension of basic skills, lay emphasis on ICT and languages,

²⁰ The design and implementation of various educational projects as well as mobility projects -i.e. Comenius- in Greek PE is regulated by the following Circulars: 151158/C7/30-11-2012, 121118/C7/8-10-2012, 121118/C7/8-10-2012

²¹ Regarding the introduction of all-day Elementary and Primary Schools see also:

- Law 3518/2006
- F.20/482/95210/C1/9-9-2003 MA: The Time-schedule of all-day Primary Schools (In Greek)
- F.50/76/121153/C1/13-11-2002 MA: Time-schedule, Programme of all-day Primary Schools – Content of Studies for the subjects of English, Theatrical Education, Dances, Music, Art, Physical Education (In Greek)

²² In this field see also: Law.3699/2008: Special Education and education of pupils with disabilities or special educational needs (In Greek)

²³ The legislative initiatives concerning ZEPs are the following:

- AF.821/3412R/15746/Z1/31-12-2010: Regulation of Zones of Educational Priority, admissions and tutoring classes (In Greek)
- F.12/20/2045/C1/10-01-2011: The Time-schedule of Primary Schools within Zones of Educational Priority (In Greek)
- YATY/809/101455/C1/7-9-2011: Regulation of Zones of Educational Priority, admissions and tutoring classes (In Greek)
- F.1TY/814/103114/C1/09-09-2011: Call for the introduction of admission and tutoring classes within ZEPs (2011-2012) (In Greek)
- F.1TY.930/118741/C1/14-10-2011: Incorporation of Primary Schools in ZEPs

²⁴ In relation to the particular legislative initiative see also:

- F.3/609/60754/C1/28-5-2010 MA: Appointment of 800 Primary Schools with UREP (In Greek)
- F.12/652/63838/C1 3-6-2010 MA: Clarifications about the 800 Primary Schools with UREP (In Greek)
- F.12/879/88413/C1/20-7-2010 MA: Teaching Methods – Content of Studies of the new educational subjects which will be incorporated in the all-day Primary Schools with UREP. Review and updates of curricula for the educational subjects of the all-day programme (In Greek)
- F.12/520/61575/C1/30-5-2011 Time-Schedule, Completion and amendments of F.12/620/61531/C1/31-5-2010 MA, F.12/773/77094/C1/28-7-2006 MA

providing pupils with certification of acquisition of the relative skills and retain a differentiated time-schedule from the other Primary Schools. Digital Primary Schools, which are found in their pilot phase of implementation, as their name suggest emphasize the use of ICT in the everyday teaching practice²⁵. Finally, the third, Model, Experimental Primary Schools, pilot phase, address new methods of teaching, the use of various educational approaches, new educational subjects, the ways the school opens up to the surrounding community and the use of new institutions in relation to the school's internal organization, administration, hierarchy and management²⁶.

Education practitioners could not have remained unaffected by the various changes in and around Primary Schools in the last decade. First of all, the Bologna process has posed various challenges in relation to their University studies. Moreover, their in-service training needs have been multiplied the past decade culminating to their existent workload (Stamelos & Bartzakli, 2011). In addition, new roles have been added to their traditional ones also requiring attention and effort for example a Headmaster (responsible of the school's management), School Advisor (advisor on educational issues and responsible for the evaluation of teachers), project manager (eTwining, Comenius, projects funded by the FP7 etc.), teacher, contact person etc. Accordingly, the various attempts on the part of the government to implement a system of quality assurance in PE has provoked severe turbulences affecting education practitioners and the ways in which they respond to their duties depending on their position to the hierarchy and their responsibilities (Stamelos et al, 2012; 2010). Finally, a new profession, relative to education, seems to flourish in the last decade in Greece, probably all around Europe as well. The profession of educators in all formal, informal and non-formal educational services which have been developing all around the country aiding students acquire certifications of skills acquisitions in various, differentiated fields i.e. hair-dressers, bakers, car-mechanics etc, stands besides that of teachers both expanding the boundaries of the teaching profession in Greece along with the content of their pretensions towards the government and limiting its potential to satisfy them in their whole (Stamelos & Vassilopoulos, 2010; 2004).

In short, PE in Greece has undergone changes, differentiated in what concerns their level of implementation regarding the content of studies, its structure – organization and, definitely, its personnel. The focus of the changes seems to lie within the policy areas where the EU focus has expanded to the level of PE (basic competences, ICT, languages, mobility, education practitioners, early school leaving and quality of education). In this context it is high time to turn to the new roles attributed to the Greek PE in the context of the European LLL area and discuss on the challenges posed on both and its pupils.

²⁵ In relation to the particular legislative initiative see also: F. 97911/T1/31-8-2011 MA: Appointment of Primary and Secondary Education Schools for the pilot implementation of the new study-programmes (In Greek).

²⁶ The law regulating Model-Experimental Primary Schools is the following: Law.3966/2011 (In Greek).

New (?) roles for the Greek PE

Community cooperation in the field of education has changed considerably in the last fifty years. It now involves all education institutions addressing all ages and kinds of population promoting lifelong learning opportunities blinking the eye towards employability, mainly, and the economy.

In this sense, Primary Schools in Greece do adopt new roles away from their previous ones regarding, centrally, the socialization of the new generations of Greeks.

The emphasis on the apprehension of basic skills, especially to the point where they are linked closely to learning outcomes may significantly affect the content of studies in Primary Schools. Besides the relevant transformations in the content of studies involved with their acquisition, the ways which will be introduced for their certification along with the willingness to be related with the signage of the end of learning cycles -instead of the academic year- may also pose significant challenges to the very organization of studies in Primary Schools. Additionally, the potential that teachers have to implement various projects to their schools enriching their programme of studies while other schools follow the national curriculum may result in great variations in an education system where parents do not have the formal right to choose among different Primary Schools²⁷. To the same end, significant questions raised from that fact that at this point besides the conventional Primary School, three new types of Primary Schools have evolved. Nobody can seriously argue about, either the landscape in PE in Greece, or the role of teachers in it.

In short, the aforementioned transformations concerning the shift towards lifelong learning meeting with the needs of the market and employability hide a serious danger. Societies may comprise anti-social subjects seeking to serve only their own rights and best interests. Nobody can provide the necessary assurance that the majority of people in modern societies retain the willingness and/or the democratic culture to position themselves in the service of the interests of the society (Karalis & Balias, 2007, p. 17). Somewhere there lies the new role of Primary Education Institutions in the new context.

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²⁷ Though it is not the rule, behind the scenes, some parents do attempt to change their children's Schools using various tricks bending the relevant laws.

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BOLOGNA PROCESS PRINCIPLES INTEGRATED INTO EDUCATION SYSTEM OF KAZAKHSTAN

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to analyze the fulfillment of the parameters of the Bologna Process in the education system of Kazakhstan. The author gives short review of higher education system of the Republic of Kazakhstan with necessary data. And the weaknesses of the system of higher education are identified. Moreover, implementing recommendations of the Bologna Process based on international cooperation and academic exchange are given.

Key words: Bologna Process, higher education system, Kazakhstan

Live as if you were to die tomorrow. Learn as if you were to live forever.
Mahatma Gandhi

Introduction

Kazakhstan became a member of the European Cultural Convention of the Council of Europe in March 2010, thereby gaining full membership in the Bologna process. Currently, the work of implementation is in progress in Kazakhstan. 60 universities of Kazakhstan signed the Great Charter. The Great Charter was adopted in 1988 in Bologna. By signing this document the universities commit to development of autonomy of universities, democratic principles of management, academic freedom of students, freedom of scientific research, etc. The objectives of Kazakhstani higher education are high – to achieve a world level of education and entry into the unified educational space. Kazakh President Nursultan Nazarbayev set the task of including the Republic among the 30 most competitive countries of the world. Improving the educational system plays an important role in achieving this task. President of Kazakhstan Nursultan Nazarbayev said in his speech “We have to ensure the provision of high quality services of education at the level of world standards all over the country” (World Didac Astana, 2011).

Benefits to Kazakhstan’s universities and students

Implementing the Bologna Process is a long and complex process. Nevertheless the Bologna Process is a pre-requisite for reinforcing institutional collaboration and for the exchange of students and staff within the countries of the Bologna process. The Bologna Process is an important instrument to enhance the internationalization of higher education, an essential driver for widening reforms, and also process of the legitimacy of current governance structures and mechanisms (TEMPUS Study, 2012).

Obviously, Kazakhstan's accession to the Bologna process provides **real benefits** to Kazakhstan’s universities and students. These are: bringing domestic educational programs and curricula in line with European standards, recognition of

national qualifications and academic degrees, ensuring academic mobility of students and teachers, implementation of double diploma education programs, convertibility of the Kazakh higher education diplomas in the euro area, the right of the graduates for employment in any of the member countries of the Bologna process.

The system of higher education of Kazakhstan underwent restructuring. The three level model of education was introduced: **Bachelor's program, Master's program and PhD's program**. Now, in the country one degree – PhD and two academic distinctions are awarded by the ministry of education – **associate professor** (docent), and **professor** (Zhumagulov, 2012, Higher Education section, para. 2). New principles of financing of higher education were introduced. 38 universities of the country perform two diploma education, 131 universities conduct the education process accordingly with credit technology and 42 higher education universities conduct distant teaching.

The fulfillment of the parameters of the Bologna Process in the education system of Kazakhstan will allow to provide quality services at the level of world standards in view of integration into the European Higher Education Area. Reforms in higher education are based on legislation and government programs. The State Program on development of education for 2020 provides for fulfillment of obligatory and recommended parameters of the Bologna Process. The State Program provides for establishment of the Bologna Process Center and the Center of Academic Mobility. Besides, the developed in April 2011 new rules of organization of education process on credit technology provides for scale of evaluation of credit technology in Kazakhstan and the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) and mutual excepting of education programs, organization of academic mobility within Kazakhstan's model of excepting credits on the ECTS basis, using of the European system of transfer and accumulation of credits in education process and module building of education programs. The program on development of education for 2020 provides for the measures that will promote autonomy of the national research universities since 2015, national higher education institutes – since 2016 and since 2018 all the rest higher education institutions of the country (World Didac Astana, 2011).

The legal framework for development of academic mobility has been created. It is one of the effective ways to increase the quality of training personnel. The first steps in development of academic mobility have already been made. In 2011 the state for the first time supported the study in foreign higher education institution for one academic period in the best universities of Europe, South East Asia and the CIS. Besides, the mechanism of internal academic mobility was developed. The principle of this mechanism is 'regional higher education institution – national university' and it means that the students from the regional higher education institutions will be able to study in the leading higher education institutions of the country (World Didac Astana, 2011).

The system of higher education of Kazakhstan also feature unique project now implemented in form of the Nazarbayev University. This University works in partnership with universities of the top 30 universities of the world. Students of the first enrolment began their study already. "Educational programs that meet the best world standards, new principles of autonomy and academic mobility are conducted

in the Nazarbayev University and later will be introduced in all higher education institutions of the country” said Prime Minister of Kazakhstan Karim Massimov. The overall goal of educational reforms in Kazakhstan is the adaptation of the educational system to the new socio-economic environment.

Current state of higher education in numbers

Higher Education in Kazakhstan can be obtained by persons with:

- General Secondary Education or
- Technical and Vocational Education or
- Postsecondary Education.

Professional education programs of Higher Education are provided in higher education institutions (universities, academies, institutes, as well as in conservatoires, higher schools and higher colleges which equated to higher education institutions). Those students, who passed final attestation and mastered professional education program of Higher Education, are awarded qualification and Bachelor's academic degree: I cycle degree – Bachelor's degree (requires minimum 4 years of study, 142-148 credits).

The Government allocated 35425 education grants for the 2010-2011 academic year for training specialists with higher education (among them 34425 full-time courses and 1000 by correspondence form of study). In comparison with education period 2009-2010 the amount of state order was increased on 1085 education grants.

Average state expenses for one student are 318400 Tenge (approximately 1600 Euro). Budgetary funds for the invitation of foreign professors from world leading universities are annually allocated for two HEIs - Al Farabi Kazakh National University and to the L. Gumilyov Eurasian National University.

Postgraduate Education can be acquired by persons with Higher Education and consists of two levels:

II cycle – Master's degree:

- On main specialty – requires 1-1.5 years of study beyond the Bachelor's degree, 36 credits;
- On scientific-pedagogical specialty – requires 2 years of study beyond the Bachelor's degree, 47 credits.

III cycle – PhD degree (requires minimum 3 years of study, 66 credits) (System of Education).

In 2009 in Kazakhstan there were 144 higher education institutions (55 State HEIs and 89 private). The number of non-state (private) institutions was gradually increasing until 2001 and began to decline in 2002. On November 26, 2012 after an optimization process there remained in Kazakhstan – 139 universities. For the 2009-2010 academic year, the total number of students in higher education institutions was 610.2 thousand. On average, there are 232 students per 10 thousand persons in the world. In Kazakhstan, this figure is 422.5 people (Higher Education in Kazakhstan). In Kazakhstan, the number of teaching staff in higher education institutions is 39.2 thousand; of those 41% have scientific degree (Higher Education in Kazakhstan).

The share of funding of Kazakhstan is still insufficient to provide sustainable development of the education system at the level recommended by UNESCO – 6-7% of GDP. At present the share of government funding for higher education in the

overall education budget remains low – less than 10.0% (Higher Education in Kazakhstan).

To date, the level of the population with higher education in percentages (%) in Kazakhstan is 39.5% (Human Development Reports). But, first of all, the structure of specialties is important, on which the preparation is followed in higher education. Education of professionals in management, marketing, and of course specialists in manufacture are necessary in the modern situation of Kazakhstan. Technical staff is the foundation of development of the industry for any economy. And our economy, above all, needs to focus on training in higher education institutes and preparation of manufacturing staff (manufacturing, high-tech industry, and so on) (Kazakov, 2010).

Problems in higher education of Kazakhstan

Despite the increasing of the state budget, payment for university education, which did not exist before independence, limits access to education for poor young people. The gap in education between rich and poor families is growing rapidly, and also between the inhabitants of large cities and rural areas. Despite the introduction of tuition fees, the real earnings of tutors in Kazakhstan are still very low, which negatively affects the quality of education: many university teachers are forced to work more than one job. Corruption at universities has a negative impact on educational standards, and it has forced the administration of the universities to introduce a system of unified university entrance examination as a means of combating bribes.

In response to some of the urgencies, new universities and educational institutions have appeared. In the republican education market, universities offer traditional state and western diplomas, and they all depend heavily on tuition fees, as both public and private universities are struggling for funding and students. At the same time, the collapse of state atheism, and the revival of religion, particularly Islam, has led to the emergence of new religious educational institutions throughout Kazakhstan. Students from Kazakhstan are also trained in the madrassas, or religious schools in the Middle East and South Asia.

Given the weakness of the system of higher education, the government of Kazakhstan has adopted programs to finance the education of students abroad. Special program of providing presidential scholarships were established (Bolashak program). The Bolashak list includes 100 universities from 17 countries for academic programs. Over the past three years 3,194 people have been awarded with the Bolashak Scholarships. JSC “Center for International Programs” has a broad network of partners abroad (more than 500 foreign partners). The graduates of the Bolashak program are employed both by Kazakhstan’s government agencies and private organizations (JSC “Center for International Programs”).

The European and American Programs (AISEC, British Council, Campus France, Education USA, DAAD) help students from Kazakhstan to study in Europe and the United States under the Program of the support of higher education (2.3 Higher education section, para. 4).

For achieving its goals higher education of Kazakhstan is striving to implement the important Bologna process parameters based on international cooperation and academic exchange that is attractive to students and teachers. They are next:

- (1) facilitate the mobility of students, graduates and staff of higher education institutions;
- (2) prepare students for future careers and to become active citizens in democratic societies, and to support their personal development;
- (3) ensure broad access to high-quality higher education, based on democratic principles and academic freedom.

There is a need to review the structure and content of higher education. University system should be brought in line with international standards, and for it is important:

- to bridge the gap between universities and the labor market and improve the system of admission to universities;
- to increase public control over the quality of education through corporate governance;
- to give autonomy in administration of universities;
- to develop a strategy for academic mobility (transfer of credits) of higher education within the country and abroad;
- to successfully develop higher education on the basis of the synthesis of three major components – **education, science and innovation**.

Conclusion

Because our future depends on the youth, giving them the best opportunities is undoubtedly the key to a dynamic aimed at the development of new advances. State authority of Kazakhstan has set the reform of higher education at the heart of its actions in support of national development strategies. Higher education is a privileged means to provide better perspectives for future generations. Education is a key element of better relations, in terms of further modernization and development of human capital for sustainable growth.

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БАЯН ДАУЛЕТКАНОВНА КЕРИМБЕКОВА / BAYAN KERIMBEKOVA

МЕТОДИКА ОБУЧЕНИЯ ПОЭТИЧЕСКИХ ПРОИЗВЕДЕНИЙ С ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЕМ ИННОВАЦИОННЫХ ТЕХНОЛОГИЙ

METHODOLOGY OF POETIC WORKS TEACHING BY MEANS OF INNOVATIVE TECHNOLOGIES

Ключевые слова: методика преподавания, инновационные технологии,
новаторство

У каждой дисциплины имеется своеобразная научная основа, каждая из них вносит свой определенный вклад в цивилизацию, в современную эпоху глобализации предмет литература выполняет особенную функцию. Выдвигаемые на первый план такие понятия, как креативность мышления, новаторство сегодня читатель пытается найти эти явления и в литературе. То есть современность возлагает ответственность не только на литературу, но и на учителя литературы. Преподавание литературы – и наука, и целое искусство. Литература – дисциплина, которая предоставляет возможность детям предаваться фантазиям, расширить свой кругозор, является основой, чтобы человек всегда оставался человеком. Интересное и плодотворное проведение урока зависит от методики и мастерства учителя. Насколько продуктивно мы используем данные методы? В каком случае знания, которые мы даем студентам, будут результативными: когда урок «интересный», или когда он «необходимый»?

Заинтересовать и научить – это два одинаковых процесса. Учителя, всегда использующего готовые термины, готовые правила, проводящий бессмысленный урок, загружая его ненужной информацией, Я. А. Коменский сравнивает «с вороной Эзопа, привязавшей крылья других птиц». В настоящее время для совершенствования учебного процесса доказана эффективность применения инновационных технологий образования. Термин «инновация» в науке был заимствован в XX веке через отрасли антропология и этнография. В данных отраслях его использовали в качестве антонима термина «традиция» в исследованиях процесса изменений в культуре (Абуов, 2005, с. 18).

Обучение поэтических произведений намного сложнее, чем обучение прозе, это мы замечаем на своем личном опыте. Потому что, в лирических произведениях на первый план выступают мысли, чувства и личные переживания поэта. Одним из главных видов работ на уроке литературы – это восприятие учениками поэтического произведения, впечатление, оказанного им на обучающихся, умение понять суть художественного произведения. Гармония поэта и исполнителя выразительного чтения дает лирике новую жизнь. «Чтение стихотворения наизусть, понимание его сути и целей – это процесс, происходящий в результате семейного воспитания и непрерывного поиска учителя» (Битибаева, 1997, с. 192). Сложность обучения поэзии лежит не в ее жанровых особенностях, а, самое главное, в восприятии, взглядах, отношении студентов к поэтическому произведению. Большинство учеников

предпочитают прозаическое произведение с интересным содержанием, в котором отчетливо прослеживается его сюжетная линия.

«Лирические произведения нужно воспринимать не слухом, а сердцем, чувствами. Как это может освоить ребенок, что он будет чувствовать, чем будет руководствоваться, что будет происходить у него в душе, проверить все это будет нелегко учителю. Но, уделяя этому большее внимание, добиваясь результата, можно достичь поставленной цели» (Богданова, 1984, с. 87). Если ученик будет стремиться понять внутреннюю структуру, стилистические особенности произведения, мы, в свою очередь, на пути формирования у учеников интереса к познанию будем повышать их интересы, активность, сможем создать такие условия, что чтение станет им самим интересно, и они будут получать эстетическое удовольствие от урока. Только в таком случае мы достигнем конечного результата (Мадер, 1979, с. 11).

Остановимся подробнее на часто используемых в нашей практике обучения поэтическим произведениям методах и приемах обучения. В первую очередь, на занятиях, посвященных поэзии, необходимо создать благоприятную атмосферу, создать условия для оптимального, непринужденного чтения. Например, выйти с классом на природу или просто использовать красивые природные пейзажи, или просто-напросто переставить парты по-особенному и т.д. «Перед началом поэтического занятия можно поставить какую-либо веселую, радостную музыку, если на стихи, которые собираетесь читать на занятия, уже положена мелодия, то можно поставить ее для прослушивания, это благоприятно отразится на подготовке учеников к уроку» (Наубаева, 2009, с. 87). Оптимальное, эффективное использование музыки, произведений изобразительного искусства и др., наглядных пособий в соответствии с тематикой занятия. К примеру, если имеются песни на слова изучаемого автора, то преподаватель может их исполнить, либо попросить студентов исполнить песню, либо прослушать запись песни. Далее с помощью метода «мозговой штурм» начинаем «штормовать» вопросами студентов. **«Мозговой штурм»** – собрать за короткий период достаточное количество предложений для решения изучаемой проблемы. При использовании метода «мозговой штурм» необходимо помнить следующее:

- Мнения, высказанные студентами, не критикуются, не обсуждаются;
- Среди студентов нет руководителей и подчиненных;
- Чем больше получаем мнения различного содержания, тем больше мы имеем возможность приблизиться к цели;
- Необходимо хвалить, поощрять участников их мнения и идеи;
- Высказываемые мнения должны быть краткими и систематизированными.

Выразительное чтение стихотворения учителем. Одним из методов творческого обучения, считающийся классическим методом является выразительное чтение художественного текста. В выразительном чтении ритм голоса, благозвучие, темп, ударение – все это считается компонентами, порождающими положительные условия при восприятии стихотворения. В стихотворении лирические отступления, психологические отступления оказывают свое влияние на восприятие. Обозначение слов, несущих в себе стержень значения стихотворения, разъяснение их значения по собственному

представлению каждого, анализ слов, придающих особое значение, систематизация, построение кластеров, понимание структуры произведения – все это являются заданиями, направленными на повышение активной мыслительной деятельности у обучающихся. Такие задания наряду с познавательной деятельностью учеников развивают их творческие способности. Только в таком случае ученик, поняв суть произведения, сможет пройти этапы анализа, обобщения, оценки собственных знаний. Для определения, обобщения, систематизации, подытоживания мысли художественного произведения можно предложить различные задания. Благодаря выразительному чтению произведений можно побудить студента к размышлениям. Студент не может остаться равнодушным. Затем можно будет дать прочитать *стихотворение студентам сначала по куплетам, по ролям, затем и полностью*. Таким образом, уделяется особое внимание на мелодичное, музыкальное чтение произведения, чтение наизусть. Ориентировать студентов на лирическое настроение поэта в стихотворении. Разведать творческую лабораторию, попытаться проанализировать причину, побудившую автора к написанию того или иного произведения. Использовать дневники, интервью и записи, а также рукописи поэта. Проанализировать критические статьи, научно-исследовательские труды по изучаемому лирическому произведению.

При изучении поэтических произведений уделяется внимание, в первую очередь, на умение учителя самому прочитать стихотворение с выражением. Потому как, во многих случаях ученик копирует своего учителя. Выразительное чтение стихотворения самим учителем пробуждает в детях увлеченность поэзией, повышает их интерес. Необходимо уделить особое внимание детей на душевное состояние, порывы сердца поэта при написании данного произведения. Только войдя в образ, сопереживая автору, и, радуясь вместе с ним, ученик может полностью понять природу поэтического произведения. Поэтому, при обучении поэтического произведения учителю всегда необходимо помнить следующее:

- в первую очередь, давать детям знания по изучаемому стихотворению в соответствии с понятиями, возрастными особенностями учеников;
- объяснять непонятные по значению слова, встречающиеся в произведении, то есть работать со словарем;
- знакомя учеников с творческой мастерской поэта (его дневники, интервью на страницах прессы, воспоминания о нем и т.д.), рассказывать об интересных фактах.

Работа по теории литературы. При обучении поэтических произведений изучение значений структурных элементов (размер, ритм, рифма, куплет), основных понятий слова стиха и умение выделять их в практическом применении – процессы, которые происходят на каждом уроке. Знание всех элементов обучения выразительному чтению необходимо обучать с помощью методов инновационных технологий. Во-первых, содержательно-тематический анализ, анализ изучения содержания, темы по разделам и всего произведения в целом. Во-вторых, уделять внимание языковому эстетическому анализу. Разъяснение языковых особенностей, моедли слова, описательное мастерство, художественность, природу слова, стилистических

особенностей произведения. В-третьих, персонажно-образный анализ. Анализ персонажей произведения, определение, выделение и сравнение их взаимоотношенности по отношению к теме и сюжетной линии произведения.

Анализ языковых особенностей произведения. Лирическому произведению служит поэтический язык. Поэтический язык отражает душевное состояние поэта, его высокие чувства. в последние годы все чаще в исследованиях по литературе говорится о необходимости единства тройного союза в порождении художественного произведения и отображении его в сознании читателя. Тогда познание формируется среди дискурс автора → художественное произведение → ученик. Период, среда, в которой проживал автор, его познание, изображение ценностей в художественном произведении зависит от многих факторов, как восприятие, понимание, изучение, оценка его учеником. Если за язык произведения принимать язык автора или персонажа, то образ в представлении характеров, раскрытии идеи произведения выполняет важную функцию. Каждому писателю или поэту свойственен своеобразный стиль, языковые особенности произведения. Эти особенности проявляются в лексике, тропах и видах фигур (сравнение, эпитет, метафора, усиление, метонимия, посвящение, повторение, антитеза, развитие и т.д.), используемые автором. Все это должно учитываться при анализе языка произведения, изучении его художественных особенностей.

Раскрытие содержания стихотворения с помощью схем. С помощью метода опорных схем, обобщения. Сравнительный анализ по диаграмме Венн. Сравнение с произведениям на аналогичную тему других поэтов. Например, А. Кунанбаев и А. С. Пушкин, М. Жумабаев и А. Блок, М. Макатаев и С. Есенин и т.д.

Работа со словарем. Устаревшие слова, индивидуальные словосочетания, диалектизмы и т.д., встречающиеся в языке поэта. Изучение *работ поэта в сфере перевода* и перевод поэзии поэта на другие языки.

Метод письменной работы по содержанию стихотворения. То есть превращение поэзии в прозу. Важно, что чувствует студент. По литературному сочинению (характеристика персонажей, сравнительная характеристика персонажей), а также сочинение по описанию своих взглядов и мнений на основе иллюстраций и рисунков по произведению повышает интерес учеников к литературе.

Устный пересказ содержания произведения. Развивает навыки пересказа содержания произведения полностью или кратко, с сохранением некоторых стилистических особенностей. Необходимо научить составлять простой и развернутый план по тексту произведения, своего доклада, сочинения. Одним из эффективных способов обучения чтению художественного произведения – это **постановка проблемного вопроса**. Этот метод можно использовать, когда изучаемый вопрос является на уровне проблемы. В этом случае можно использовать **«Метод суда»**. Судящие и защищающие героя произведения делятся на две группы, каждая из которых должна обосновать свои мнения.

Метод Буриме. На доске пишутся несколько рифмующихся между собой слов. Используя данную рифму, студенты должны написать один куплет. На это дается 1-1,5 минуты. Стихотворения читаются внутри групп.

Можно использовать и метод пяти строчек. Даются пять существительных, пять прилагательных, пять местоимений, по ним нужно составить пять строчек. Этот метод повышает творчество студентов.

Метод ДЖИКСО или коллективное обучение. Членам групп предоставляется свобода действий, возможность работать по своему усмотрению. Преподаватель в данном случае не руководитель, а такой же член одной из групп. Он является только связующим звеном в процессе взаимоотношений, а также инициатор формирования отношений. Тем не менее место преподавателя особенно. Потому что, он предварительно готовит сценарий, косвенным образом влияет на работу группы, оценивает направление в работе группы, влияет на формирование уверенности и открытой эмоциональной среды.

Коллективная работа наряду с формированием личности ставит перед собой следующие цели: учитывая внешнюю оценку других, познание самого себя, чувствовать воздействие коллективного процесса, умение понимать действия и характер других членов группы через интонацию голоса, мимику, настроение, запах и др. невербальные действия, определять влияющие на группу факторы, эффективно, положительно влиять на действия группы (Богданова, 1997, с. 36). Студенты делятся на 4 группы и анализируют 4 произведения поэта внутри группы. Затем один студент разъясняет их остальным группам. При работе со студентами по группам, каждому студенту раздаются карточки, в которых написаны по одной строчке произведения. Студенты соединяют все строчки на карточках и составляют из них куплет, в таком порядке они образуют группу. Количество данных строчек должны соответствовать количеству групп.

Дать задание *студентам* составить *кластер* об авторе.

При использовании метода Сократа, то есть при постановке только одного вопроса, можно прийти к одному решению. Например, стихотворения какого поэта вы чаще всего декларируете? Почему? Как бы вы назвали это стихотворение поэта? и др. Все студенты будут высказывать свои мнения, и таким образом, можно выделить самый приемлимый ответ.

Бумеранг – заставить говорить других, то есть если педагогу задается вопрос, то он может переадресовать его самому студенту. Например, А вы как думаете? А как бы вы ответили?

Организовывать встречи с живыми поэтами или поручить самим студентам организовать встречу с родственниками, исследователями, учениками поэта. **Формирование творческой личности.**

Как показала преподавательская практика, одним из видов занятий, на котором можно развивать мыслительную деятельность, познавательные горизонты, речевую деятельность, грамотное письмо – **написание эссе**. К кратким эссе относятся «Кто я есть?», «Мама, ты основа основ», «Духовный облик современников», «О чем поет, моя домбра?», «Путешествие в детство» и др. Названные выше эссе не обязательно писать на конкретном уроке, их можно задать на пройденную тему, в целях обобщения идеи урока, а можно попросить подготовить устное эссе. В некоторых случаях, когда у студента имеются свое мнение, проблемы, волнующие его, трудности, с которыми он не может поделиться, тогда студент может подготовить

письменное эссе на тему «Я вам посвящаю», такая работа никому не показывается и хранится в тайне.

Дискуссия – это используемый с давних времен метод обучения, в средние века использовался в качестве поиска истины. Его можно также применять и при изучении поэтических произведений. Элементы дискуссии (противооречивость мнений, спор и т.д.) можно применять при любых формах обучения, даже на лекционных занятиях. На дискуссиях, проводимых среди учеников, им необходимо отстаивать интересы группы. Посредством этого развиваются такие навыки, как сохранение коллективного единства, умение работать в коллективе. В качестве темы для дискуссий могут выступать не только проблемы изучаемой дисциплины, но и проблемы человеческих ценностей, взаимоотношений между членами группы. **Самым основным условием** является то, чтобы предложенная тематика могла порождать дискуссию. Если у студентов нет необходимого багажа знаний по теме занятия, то устраивать дискуссию не имеет смысла. **Эффективно применять данный метод при закреплении пройденного материала.**

Игровой метод – применяется в целях усвоения учениками знаний и для решения сформированных проблем в учебном процессе. Среди игр можно назвать следующие виды: учебная, имитационная, ролевая, организаторско-деятельностная, деловая управленческая, военная, инновационная и т.д. Деловые игры впервые были проведены на занятиях в 1930 году в Ленинграде, но по социально-экономическим причинам не получили своего продолжения. В 1950 году они снова были внедрены в практику в США. Сейчас учебных и деловых игр насчитывается более 100 видов. А. А. Вербицкий считает, что деловые игры способствуют раскрытию предметного и социального содержания будущей профессиональной деятельности специалиста. В деловой игре ученик полностью погружается в ситуацию внутри игры, развиваются взаимоотношения, проявляются отчетливые эмоции (радость и обиды во время игры) (Усова, 1986, с. 3). Этот метод отличается от других методов тем, что у ученика во время игры появляется возможность обеспечить себя эффективными средствами для выполнения задания. Несмотря на то, что это просто игра, в ее основе лежат важные элементы будущего специалиста.

Применяя названные методы и приемы, преподаватель достигает глубокого осмысления учеником новых знаний, самостоятельного изучения информации, взвешивания, выборки из нее самого необходимого, разностороннего анализа, самостоятельного составления новых понятий и знаний, участия в дискуссии, умения доказывать свое мнение, учитывать другие похожие мнения, принимать решения и решать сложные проблемы, приучает к ответственности (к своим знаниям, к жизни), строить взаимоотношения с другими.

Литература словно резиновая нить. Из нее можно создать прекрасные вещи различной формы. Лишь бы не оборвалась эта нить!

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ОБ ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИИ ИННОВАЦИЙ В ПРОЦЕССЕ ПОУРОВНЕВОГО ОБУЧЕНИЯ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОМУ ЯЗЫКУ В КАЗАХСТАНЕ НА ОСНОВЕ ЕВРОПЕЙСКИХ СТАНДАРТОВ

ABOUT THE USE OF INNOVATIONS IN THE PROCESS OF OFFICIAL KAZAKH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN LEVEL ON THE BASIS OF THE EUROPEAN STANDARDS

Ключевые слова: казахский язык, учебно-методический комплекс, поуровневое обучение

Введение

В настоящее время исследуются инновационные идеи и поиски в обучении государственному языку в современных условиях Казахстана, предпринимаются попытки применения их в деле, внедрения в практику. Стремительное развитие данных попыток ставит перед учеными-методистами большие задачи.

Законы Республики Казахстан «Об образовании», «О языках» составляют правовую основу обучения казахскому языку как государственного в школах с неказахским языком обучения. В целях активного участия в реализации мероприятий по Языковой политике, которой в Казахстане на сегодняшний день уделяется большое внимание на государственном уровне, учеными-методистами стали разрабатываться и издаваться множество различных работ по данному вопросу.

В связи с этим, поуровневое, комплексное изучение казахского языка в средних и высших учебных заведениях является на сегодняшний день одной из актуальных проблем.

Инновационные аспекты поуровневого обучения

Одной из первых работ в Казахстане, основанной на инновационном обучении государственному языку по европейским стандартам, является учебно-методический комплекс по изучению казахского языка, автором которого выступил коллектив кафедры Теории современного казахского языка и методики обучения Казахского национального педагогического университета имени Абая, данный комплекс был разработан и опубликован в 2006-2007 учебном году. В статье рассматривается структура, содержание и особенности данного учебно-методического комплекса. Он состоит из 36 книг, 6 электронных учебников. Комплекс охватывает 6 уровней изучения казахского языка. Это:

1. Начальный уровень.
2. Основной (базовый) уровень.
3. Средний уровень.
4. Уровень выше среднего.

5. Высший уровень.

6. Совершенный уровень (Оразбаева и др., 2007, с. 5).

Комплексное инновационное обучение казахскому языку было впервые разработано в Казахстане с учетом полинационального характера и национальных особенностей Республики Казахстан и на основе международных, Европейских стандартов, таких оценивающих систем языкового образования, как TOEFL, DALF/DELF, ALTE, IELTS.

В учебно-методическом комплексе учтено какому уровню, каким целям он соответствует, а также кому предназначен комплекс по изучению языка. Найти полноценный ответ на интересующие нас вопросы можно в словах руководителя и автора шестиуровневого учебно-методического комплекса, ученого-методиста Ф. Оразбаевой: «Цель комплексного инновационного обучения государственному языку – это представить систематизированные учебные пособия с коммуникативной точки зрения, реализующие различные уровни овладения казахским языком; охватывающие эффективные методы и передовые модели новейших технологий; самостоятельное изучение казахского языка по уровням» (Оразбаева, 2009, с. 110). А о концепции комплекса ученый говорит: «**Концепция** учебно-методического комплекса, направленного на изучение казахского языка, разработанного на основе международных стандартов изучения и оценки языка в Республике Казахстан – это документ, направленный на обучение казахскому языку иностранных граждан, работающих в сфере правовой, экономической, общественно-социальной, научно-практической и др. деятельности в Республике Казахстан; определяющий уровни и нормы овладения языком, нормативные документы, основные цели и задачи учебно-методического комплекса; охватывающий характеристику и содержание, объем и требования учебно-методических пособий по каждому уровню, общие правила и основные принципы овладения казахским языком» (Оразбаева, 2009, с. 110).

Ученый-методист К. Жаксылыкова в своей работе отмечает: «Пособие по комплексному обучению государственному языку – это основное пособие творческой деятельности преподавателя и обучаемого. А точнее говоря, содержание комплекса и технология его овладения подводят и преподавателя и обучаемого к единой творческой деятельности» (Жаксылыкова, 2009, с. 46). Очевидно, что комплекс влияет на формирование технологий, единства связанной деятельности преподавателя и обучаемого в процессе изучения/обучения, в этой связи на учебно-методический комплекс возлагаются большие обязанности.

Чтобы ответить на вопрос: что входит в учебно-методический комплекс, остановимся подробнее на следующих его разделах:

1. Электронный учебник, обеспечивающий комплексное обучение казахскому языку по каждому уровню. (Все учебно-методические пособия учебно-методического комплекса вошли в электронный учебник). А именно: учебник, методический указатель, лексико-грамматический минимум, сборник упражнений, книга для чтения, тесты для контроля представлены отдельно по каждому из 6 уровней. В учебнике представлена система уроков, охватывающая темы из повседневной жизни и направленная на изучение языка с коммуникативной точки зрения. В методических указаниях же

отражены цели упражнений, данных в учебнике, а также условия и способы выполнения заданий. В лексико-грамматическом минимуме предлагаются слова и словосочетания, их перевод, избранные языковые единицы и грамматические правила. В сборнике упражнений собраны упражнения на развитие грамотной письменной и устной речи, на развитие письма. В книге для чтения предложены тексты на различную тематику для устного чтения. В тестах для контроля отведено место тестовым заданиям на основе усвоенного материала всего комплекса (Оразбаева и др., 2007).

2. Казахстанская модель, соответствующая показателям международных стандартов поуровневого обучения казахскому языку. (1. Начальный уровень → A1 Начальное владение; 2. Основной уровень → A2 Предпороговый уровень; 3. Средний уровень → B1 Пороговый; 4. Уровень выше среднего → B1+ Углубленное владение; 5. Высший уровень → B2 Продвинутый пороговый уровень; 6. Совершенный уровень → B2+ Уровень профессионального владения, C1 Уровень владения в совершенстве).

3. Теоретические инновации учебно-методического комплекса. (Теория языковой коммуникации, теория терминов, виды речевой деятельности, аудирование, чтение, говорение, письмо, общение).

4. Коммуникативные инновации учебно-методического комплекса. (1. Развитие → освоение словарного запаса, необходимого для передачи информации о себе и окружающей среде; 2. Конкретность → Освоение простейших грамматических и синтаксических конструкций; 3. Скорость → пытается донести свою мысль кратко и доходчиво; 4. Взаимодействие → отвечает в полной мере на вопросы, касающиеся его личной жизни, а также умеет задавать вопросы; 5. Взаимосвязанность → правильно употребляя знакомые слова и выражения, умение выразить мысль с помощью предложений).

5. Когнитивные инновации учебно-методического комплекса. (Направлены на овладение национальными ценностями посредством языка. Здесь представлен познавательный материал в таких рубриках, как «Викторина», «Знаете ли вы?», «Найди решение!», «Золотой сундук»).

6. Национальные инновации учебно-методического комплекса. В национальных инновациях собран материал в следующих рубриках: «Пословицы», «Публицистика», «Подумай и ответь!», «Поэзия – королева слова», «Поучительная жизнь», «Песня для души», «Золотой корень». В рубрике «Пословицы» представлены пословицы-поговорки, в рубрике «Публицистика» – ораторские речи, в рубрике «Подумай и ответь» – загадки, кроссворды и скороговорки, в рубрике «Поэзия – королева слова» – стихи известных казахских поэтов, в рубрике «Поучительная жизнь» – фотографии великих людей, их автобиографии и мудрые высказывания, в рубрике «Песня для души» – песни, распространенные среди казахского народа, в рубрике «Золотой корень» описываются государственные символы Республики Казахстан и национальные этнографические наименования.

Содержание и структура комплекса соответствует следующим условиям:

1. В данной работе представлена казахстанская модель изучения казахского языка в совершенно новом аспекте с акцентом на национальные особенности и менталитет многонационального народа Казахстана и с учетом

основных принципов систем оценки на основе европейских стандартов (Оразбаева и др., 2007).

2. Содержание и структура комплекса содержит модель овладения языком через активное языковое общение.

3. Основной учебник, методические указания, сборник упражнений, электронный учебник, книга для чтения, сборник контрольных тестов, входящие в состав комплекса, составлены в соответствии с требованиями каждого уровня (начальный, основной, средний, выше среднего, высший, совершенный). Поуровневый учебно-методический комплекс составлен в соответствии с условиями международных стандартов: **гибкость, систематизация, ясность, эффективность, познавательность** и др., которые являются основой в мировой методике.

- (1) Гибкость содержания знаний учебно-методического комплекса. Материалы по каждому уровню по гибкости учебно-методического комплекса подобраны таким образом, чтобы обучающимся было быстро его запоминать, легко употреблять их в конкретных ситуациях и удобно изменять.
- (2) Систематизация содержания знаний учебно-методического комплекса. Материалы, представленные для системности учебно-методического комплекса дополняют друг друга, содержание знаний в данном комплексе даны в определенной логической связи.
- (3) Ясность содержания знаний учебно-методического комплекса. Содержание знаний понятно и эффективно для усвоения материала, что является главным условием ясности всего комплекса.
- (4) Эффективность содержания знаний учебно-методического комплекса. Эффективность содержания знаний комплекса заключается в самостоятельной работе обучающегося, в удобном выполнении творческих заданий. При выполнении заданий имеются большие возможности применять интерактивные методы обучения.
- (5) Познавательность содержания знаний учебно-методического комплекса. Комплекс, в первую очередь, разработан для русскоговорящих граждан и русскоговорящих казахов, проживающих в Казахстане. Поэтому учебный комплекс написан в духе дружественных взаимоотношений в условиях многонационального Казахстана и нацелен на познание менталитета казахского народа. При изучении языка обучающийся посредством получения дополнительных знаний об обычаях и традициях, истории, культуры, национальных ценностях казахского народа, о тесной взаимосвязи их с культурными ценностями других наций и народностей, получает возможность расширить и углубить свои взгляды, познания и представления о нем. Все вышесказанное соответствует условию познавательности шестиуровневого комплекса.

Также при определении содержания знаний поуровневого обучения казахскому языку делался упор на следующие вопросы:

Во-первых, содержание знаний соответствует целям обучения.

Во-вторых, большое внимание уделяется связи содержания знаний с реальной жизнью и практической стороне. Речевые этикетки соответствуют

каждому уровню и учитывают частоту их употребляемости в повседневной жизни.

В-третьих, содержание знаний представлено в соответствии с уровнем обучающегося.

В-четвертых, упражнения даны систематизировано, условия работ с упражнениями разнообразны.

В-пятых, содержание и методика знаний направлены на формирование личности.

В-шестых, все виды речевой деятельности (чтение, говорение, письмо, аудирование, общение) взаимосвязаны.

В-седьмых, языковой материал представлен комплексно.

Вместе с тем, каждый уровень учебно-методического комплекса подготовлен на основе коммуникативных, информационных, мотивационных, толерантных отношений.

Коммуникативная функция комплекса – система тематик и упражнений по каждому уровню направлена на охват всех видов речевой деятельности. Данные тексты, предложения, словосочетания, языковые единицы, слова наставления помогают правильно излагать свои мысли, формировать культуру казахской речи. В этой связи, в обучении языку с коммуникативных позиций необходимо отметить проблемы лингвистических, социально-языковых, дискурсных, стратегических, культурно-социальных умений обучающихся. Это умения обучающегося:

- *Лингвистические умения:* обучающийся оценивается посредством грамотного письма в соответствии с лексико-грамматическими, фонетическими, синтаксическими, стилистическими нормами и правильного и свободного общения.
- *Социально-языковые умения:* учитывается уровень профессионального и разностороннего общения обучающегося с людьми.
- *Дискурсные умения:* уделяется внимание правильному составлению текстов и предложений.
- *Стратегические умения:* определение ошибок оцениваемого, совершенствование их на основе собственных изысканий.
- *Культурно-социальные умения:* проявляются через умение изображать культурно-национальные особенности.

Содержание текстов (ораторские слова, крылатые выражения, загадки, пословицы-поговорки, национальные этнографические наименования, песни, стихи), данные в учебно-методическом комплексе, определяют его **информационную функцию**.

Мотивационная функция комплекса также весьма высока. Поскольку, содержание материалов, представленных по каждому уровню, реализуется через группу интересных и занимательных заданий и систему упражнений. Также в комплексе имеются различные материалы, побуждающие обучающегося к общению на казахском языке и вызывающие большой интерес.

Функция комплекса адаптирована к **толерантным** отношениям. Учебно-методический комплекс через освоение обучающимися духовных ценностей представителей других наций и народов, западных цивилизаций и бесценных

богатств цивилизаций мира всего человечества укрепляет дружественные взаимоотношения, межнациональное согласие.

На закономерный вопрос какие результаты мы получим при комплексном инновационном поуровневом обучении казахскому языку, можно ответить следующим образом:

На начальном уровне обучаемый осваивает навыки разговорного общения на казахском языке.

На основном уровне изучающие казахский язык на основе языковых единиц могут научиться правильно говорить и грамотно писать.

На среднем уровне обучаемый овладеет навыками свободного выражения мыслей, умениями отвечать на вопросы, овладеет литературным языком.

На уровне выше среднего обучаемый овладеет навыками свободного профессионально ориентированного языкового общения в разной среде.

На высшем уровне обучаемый в совершенстве овладеет различными стилями языка и достигнет уровня выступать с научным докладом.

На совершенном уровне обучаемый может свободно общаться на различную тематику, грамотно писать, вступать в дискуссии, дебаты.

Заключение

Подводя итоги, можно сказать, что представленный учебный комплекс, содержащий материалы по каждому уровню, является одной из первых работ нового поколения, способствующий совершенствованию процесса обучения государственному языку и соответствующий требованиям и условиям поуровневого обучения.

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ИЗСЛЕДВАНЕ НА ПАРАВЕРБАЛНИТЕ ХАРАКТЕРИСТИКИ В ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛНИЯ ДИСКУРС

A STUDY OF PARA-VERBAL CHARACTERISTICS IN EDUCATION DISCOURSE

Abstract

The experience of organizing graduate traineeships and practice in school environment shows that the majority of the students meet serious difficulties in conducting lessons, and presentations that require a serious knowledge in the field of non-verbal communication. The aim of the study is to make an empirical test of the hypothesis that preliminary training on nonverbal communication conducted with trainees – psychologists (n = 114) is a factor for change in their behaviour and attitudes of non-verbal characteristics.

Увод

Преобладаващата част от студентите в горните курсове, както и начинаещите учители и преподаватели невинаги съзнават, че изнасянето на един урок, лекция или презентация изисква сериозни познания от областта на невербалната комуникация. Представата, че добрите теоретични познания по съответната научна дисциплина са достатъчна предпоставка за успешната реализация на педагогическия акт, се оказва погрешна в практиката. Със съжаление отчитаме обаче, че университетската подготовка на значителна част от студентите – бъдещи учители, пред които след дипломиране предстои непосредствен професионален дебют, не предвижда такъв тип специализирана подготовка. Опитът от провеждане на текущи практики и държавни стажове сочи, че тези пропуски биха могли да представляват сериозно препятствие за нормалното провеждане на учебния процес.

Мненията на учените се различават по отношение степента на значимост на невербалната комуникация. Де Ландшир и Делашамбр например доказват в серия от експерименти, че този тип общуване представлява 75% от цялостната невербална интеракция в училищните класове (De Landsheere & Delachambre, 1979). Алберт Мехрабян от своя страна счита, че невербалния език заема 93% процента от психологическото въздействие на комуникативното послание, като то се разпределя между 55% от визуална и 38% от паравербална информация (Mehrabian, 1971). Той твърди, че само 7% от смисъла на информацията се предава в словесен вид. Преценката на Мехрабян често е считана за „преувеличена и съмнителна” от учени като Бъргуун, Балър и Уудал. Те коригират високите стойности на Мехрабян посредством внушителен брой изследвания (повече от 100 експеримента) установявайки, че ролята на вербалната комуникация зависи до голяма степен от контекста, в който интеракцията се състои. Така например при провеждане на научна конференция импактът на визуалния код претърпява инверсия на стойностите

– от 55% на 32% при зрителен контакт и от 38% на 15% при паравербални параметри. В този случай вербалното въздействие преминава от 7% на 53% (Burgoon, Buller & Woodall, 1979, 136-137).

Цел и хипотеза

Целта на настоящето изследване е да провери по емпиричен път необходимостта от въвеждане на преподавателски курсове, тренингови обучения и семинари, чиито програми се основават както на възможностите за усъвършенстване и коректив на паравербалните умения на студентите, така и на създаване на набор от авторефлексивни познания от областта на невербалната комуникация в помощ на професионалната практика на настоящите и бъдещи учители и преподаватели. Във връзка с тази цел формулирахме следната хипотеза: съществува статистически значима разлика между сравняваната променлива сила на говора в зависимост от това дали студентите са преминали през предварителното обучение по невербална комуникация. Също така, що се отнася до обучените студенти, се очакват по-силни ефекти върху промените по отношение на наблюдаваните параметри. Тези предположения се основават на констатацията, че уменията за изграждане на успешна стратегия за презентация спомагат за постигане на висока интерактивна динамика между лектора и неговата аудитория за стимулиране на учебния процес.

Етапи при провеждане на изследването

Настоящото изследване се проведе в два етапа, разположени в рамките на 3 години (2010–2013 г.). Първият етап (февруари–май 2010 г. и февруари–май 2011 г.) бе планиран с цел идентификация и проучване на факторите, които влияят върху уменията на студентите за презентация и себепрезентация пред ученици от горните класове¹. Вторият етап, проведен през февруари–май 2012 г. и февруари–март 2013 г., се основава на резултатите от първия етап, като целта е да се провери до каква степен провеждането на теоретично и практическо обучение по невербална комуникация със студентите представлява предпоставка за успешна реализация техните презентациите пред учениците.

Двата етапа съвпадат с провеждане на една от задачите на студентите по време на държавния им стаж, свързана с изнасяне на урок-беседа пред ученици от осми до единайсети клас (поотделно) в Гимназия с хуманитарен профил „Св. Св. Кирил и Методий“, град Пловдив. Студентите по психология, които провеждат практиката си в училищата, се разпределят по групи от по 3-5 души за изготвяне и изнасяне на тематични презентации. Продължителността на всеки от уроците е със стандартна дължина на един ученически учебен час от 40 минути.

¹ Резултатите от това изследване бяха представени във вид на доклад с публикация под заглавие: Янакиев, Ю. (2011): Психосемиотика на педагогическата интеракция – изследване на невербалните и паравербални параметри на дидактическото пространство и език. *Образованието в информационното общество*, София.

Тук е мястото да отбележим, че работата върху изследването бе подпомогната от наблюденията на студентите, които подготвиха писмени анализи на техните индивидуални и групови презентации в специално предвидени за целта портфолиа. Прилагането на гледните им точки от позициите на едновременни участници, наблюдатели и анализатори бе от съществено значение при търсене на максимална обективност. Включването на експертните мнения на студентите на всеки един отделен етап от проучването доведе до по-пълното и фино нюансиране на текущите и окончателните резултати.

Участници

Изследването се проведе с общо 114 студенти от 4^{-ти} курс, специалност „Психология” (редовно и задочно обучение) в Пловдивския университет „Паисий Хилендарски”, от които 70 жени и 44 мъже. Средната възраст на изследваните лица е 25,33 години ($SD = 3,42$). Те бяха разделени в две групи: контролна и експериментална.

Експерименталната група включва 57 студенти, от които 35 жени и 22 мъже ($SD = 3,30$). Те са преминали през предварителен еднодневен тренинг (5 часа), който съдържа теоретична и практическа подготовка по невербална комуникация (проксемиа и кинезика), ориентирана конкретно към спецификата на преподаване в училищата. Студентите от тази група бяха предварително информирани за провеждането на експеримента. Те бяха запознати детайлно с резултатите от изследването, проведено с техните колеги от по-горните курсове (контролна група) в неговия първи етап.

Контролната група обхваща 57 студенти, съставена от идентичен брой участници с еднакво разпределение по пол: 35 жени и 22 мъже ($SD = 3,56$). За разлика от експерименталната група те не са преминали през съответния 5 часов тренинг по невербална комуникация.

Метод

Съгласно системата за мониторинг на проксемично поведение, предложена от Е. Т. Хол (Hall, 1966; Янакиев, 2010, 2010а, 2011), скалирането силата на говора се кодира върху скала от седем степени: мълчание (0); много тих говор (1); тих говор (2); нормален говор (3); нормален говор + (4); силен говор (5) и много силен говор (6).

Трябва да се има предвид, че определянето силата на гласа се извършва в съответствие с културните норми и предписания за разстояние, отношения между участниците, характеристики на пространствената ситуация (акустика, шум) или тема на разговор. Е. Т. Хол обръща особено внимание на факта, че силата на гласа е етнически обусловена (Hall, 1966; Янакиев, 2010, 2011). Той дава пример с американците, говорещи като цяло по-тихо от арабите, които поради тази причина реагират с недоверие при комуникация с тях.

Степенуването по параметър сила на говора представлява относително сложна задача, тъй-като при отчитането на стойностите е необходимо да бъдат взети под внимание променливите дистанция и ориентация на тялото, както и характеристиките на пространствената ситуация (акустика, шум), в която се

състои презентацията. При работата по този сегмент изходихме от констатацията за ниво на чуваемост без усилие от цялата аудитория, което скалирахме със стойност 4, равняваща се на глас по-силен от нормален говор. По-слабите аудитивни нива, които изискваха допълнително усилие за ясна чуваемост, отчетохме със съответните стойности 3 и 2. По-силният от необходимото говор степенувахме с 5, което се равнява на степен силен говор. По време на урока-беседа не бяха регистрирани участия с много силен глас (6) както от страна на студентите, така и при учениците. За повече обективност се стремихме да се придържаме към внимателното наблюдение на поведението на аудиторията от ученици и студенти, като осъществихме проверка на стойностите с присъстващите преподаватели и участници в презентациите. Получените резултати бяха проверени още веднъж при обработката на информацията от видеозаписите.

Резултати и дискусия

Статистическата обработка на резултатите се проведе с SPSS 17.0 и Statistica 7.0 на StaSoft. Използван бе непараметричен тест за оценка значимостта на разликите в промяната на атитюдите на участниците в експерименталната и контролната група. Проверката за значимост на разликите е извършена с непараметричните тестове на Mann-Whitney, Wilcoxon и Kolmogorov-Smirnov (SPSS > Analyze > Nonparametric test > 2 Independent Samples-Test), които съответстват най-добре на типа извадка и вида на измерващата скала.

Сила на говора в контролната и експерименталната група

Статистическият анализ на данните по променливата сила на говора в контролната и експерименталната група позволява да приемем лансираната хипотеза ($p = 0.000 < \alpha = 0,05 \Rightarrow H_1$). Резултатите показват, че 73,7% от студентите в експерименталната група са успели да адаптират силата на гласа си по подходящия за условията начин за да бъдат чути без усилие от цялата аудитория; 17,5% от тях са презентирали с нормална сила на говора, което е с една степен по-ниско от необходимото и предполага недостатъчно добра чуваемост от учениците на крайните редове; 1,8% от студентите са говорили с прекалено тих глас, а 7,0% от тях са говорили по-силно от необходимото. Повече от половината и.л. от контролната група (52,6%) са преподавали с тих и нормален говор, преценени като по-слаби от необходимото в съответствие условията на средата и предпочетената интерактивна дистанция; 42,0% от тях са проявили адаптивни умения и са регулирали адекватно силата на гласа си, като 5,3% са я превишили с една степен. Сравнителният анализ на променливите сила на гласа и интерперсонална дистанция в двете групи потвърди факта, че най-ниската чуваемост се констатира предимно при презентиращите от публична (над 360 см) и социална далечна дистанция (210-360 см). Логическото обяснение се съдържа в по-голямата дължина на аудитивния канал между лектора и неговата аудитория.

Сила на говора при жените в контролната и експерименталната група

Резултатите от статистическия анализ на данните при определяне силата на говора при жените в контролната и експерименталната група позволява да приемем хипотезата по отношение на тази променлива ($p = 0.006 < \alpha = 0,05 \Rightarrow H_1$). Данните при жените показват съществена разлика в стойностите (80,0% към 42,1%) по отношение употребата на адекватна сила на гласа (степен 4). Наблюденията сочат, че сборът на процентите на жените в контролната група, презентирали с тих или нормален говор, е повече от половината (53,5%), което отново дава основание за повишено внимание при предварителната подготовка на студентите по отношение на тази паравербална характеристика.

Сила на говора при мъжете в контролната и експерименталната група

Емпиричните резултати отчитат наличието на статистически значима разлика в силата на говора при мъжете в контролната и експерименталната група ($p = 0.028 < \alpha = 0,05 \Rightarrow H_1$). Констатираната разлика се дължи на фактори, свързани с предварителното обучение на студентите от експерименталната група. Разликите между експерименталната и контролната група при мъжете потвърждават наблюдаваната при жените тенденция. Виждаме че 63,5% от мъжете в експерименталната група са успели да адаптират силата на гласа по отношение на избраната интерактивна дистанция, 18,2% от тях са се изразявали по-тихо и по силно от необходимото. Резултатите при мъжете в контролната група почти се припокриват със стойностите на жените в същата група: 50,0% от тях презентират с тих и нормален говор, 40,9% успяват да съобразят силата на гласа си с акустиката на средата и дистанцията, а 9,1% използват с една степен по-силен говор от необходимото.

Темп и ритъм на речта

Друг съществен за целите на преподаването паравербален елемент представлява селекцията на темп и ритъм на речта, които да бъдат във фокус с дискурсивната логика на презентацията. Балансираният ритъм на изложението, съобразен със същността на разглежданата тематиката, предоставя на аудиторията допълнителни индикации относно значимостта на отделните секвенции. Повечето от презентиращите студенти споделиха, че възприемат повишаването на собствения им ритъм на речта като индикатор за наличие на стрес: „До голяма степен успях да овладя тремора и да запазя умерен темп на говор.“; „За нещастие при стресова ситуация усилвам темпа на говор и ми е изключително трудно да осмислям това, което говоря...“. Напротив, умереният темп при изразяване представлява ясен сигнал за адаптивните възможности на лектора. Според проксемичните закономерности би следвало ритъмът на говор да бъде адаптиран в съответствие с интерактивното разстояние. В случай, че презентацията се осъществява от публично разстояние (над 360 см) темпът на говор трябва да е значително по-бавен отколкото при лична (45-125 см) или социална дистанция (125-360 см).

Тембър и стилистичен регистър

Компонентите, които моделират структурата на вербалния канал, се изразяват в селекцията на тембър и стилистичен регистър в зависимост от рецептивните характеристики на аудиторията – възраст, навици, специфични познания, възможности за концентрация, интереси, атитюди. Психолингвистите са категорични, че публичната презентация изисква употребата на специфична лексика и стилистика, която може да бъде постигната единствено посредством допълнителна реторическа подготовка (Joos, 1962; Carroll, 2007). Тя включва характерната за официални изяви правилна и ясна артикулация и стриктно нормирана интонация на фразата, както и селекция на по-нисък от обичайния тембър на гласа, който сигнализира за по ангажирано отношение към темата. В унисон е формулирана авторефлексията на една от студентките:

Предстоеше ми да навляза по-дълбоко в дълбоките води на подготвената тематика, затова съзнателно промених тона на гласа си [...], подчертавайки важността, с която възприемам последвалата информация, и чрез това се опитах да събудя у аудиторията концентрация.

Друга съществена предпоставка за успешно представяне при публични изяви се съдържа в селекцията на подходящ стилистичен регистър, който изключва актуализацията на диалектна, архаична или фамилиарна лексика с изключение на случаите, в които ораторът цели нарочното постигане на комичен или пародиен ефект. Ще отбележим, че фамилиарният стил на презентация, използван на моменти или изцяло по време на презентациите от изключително малък брой участници в експеримента, не винаги бе възприет с резерви, което вероятно се дължи на малката възрастова разлика между студентите и учениците от горните класове. Обикновено от любопитните очи и уши на учениците не убягват сигурните знаци на сценична треска: говорни колебания, пропуски, неуместни паузи, лапсуси, въздишки и покашляния в комбинация с репетитивни жестове.

Заключение

Емпиричните резултати отчетоха наличието на статистически значима разлика в силата на говора както между контролната и експерименталната група ($p \leq 0.000$), така и поотделно в извадката за жени ($p \leq 0.006$) и мъже ($p \leq 0.028$) от контролната и експерименталната група. Резултатите от изследването потвърдиха хипотезата, че предварителното обучение по невербална комуникация е фактор за промяна в нагласите и поведението на студентите от експерименталната и контролната група. Изследването дава основание за препоръки относно въвеждането на лекционни курсове, семинари и тренинги за теоретична и практическа подготовка по невербална комуникация в помощ на професионалната практика на настоящите и бъдещи учители и преподаватели.

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Part 5

Educational Development Strategies in Different Countries and Regions of the World: National, Regional and Global Levels

Стратегии развития образования в различных странах и регионах мира: национальный, региональный и глобальный уровни

OKSANA CHIGISHEVA

ESTABLISHING SUSTAINABLE HIGHER EDUCATION PARTNERSHIPS IN A GLOBALLY COMPETITIVE ENVIRONMENT

Abstract

The paper written in the form of literature review is devoted to the analysis of the latest educational manuscripts by Laura M. Portnoi et al and Robin Sakamoto et al and provides a critical overview of possible partnership interactions in the actively globalizing sphere of world higher education.

Contemporary world is dynamically developing under the influence of globalization. On the one hand it stimulates a rapid progress of knowledge economy, free-market system, commercialization of all life locuses and on the other hand provokes a sharp necessity of solving global issues destructively influencing human life and even contravening the possibility of the whole planet's future existence and sustainable development. The latter has become one of the highly discursive subjects by the public at large mostly focusing on the necessity of perceiving environmental, economical and social dimensions in interdependence to address global challenges and being an urge able to serve a background for positive transformations in various spheres when achieving sustainability. It is not surprising that such nonstandard situation requires extraordinary changes in the sphere of higher education, mostly associated with universities, which should provide a first-class teaching and service to the society in the new conditions catalyze the formation of innovative 'sustainable' world outlook and optimistic global education climate.

Both volumes under review demonstrate a strong interest of international educators to the recently occurred complex organizational shifts in higher education

having led either to the reinforcement of some specific phenomena like competitiveness or complication of the existing ones as in case of cooperation transformed into partnership as a result of contemporary economic, political and cultural changes and characterized by a more universal level of functioning – across borders. The trends chosen by the editors as the key ones seem acute and provide a rich ground for their critical consideration within global sustainability context.

It is correctly noted by Laura M. Portnoi, Val D. Rust and Sylvia S. Bagley that modern university environment being under a serious neoliberalistic and economical influence made a step towards academic capitalism characterized by the presence of entrepreneurially oriented educational institutions and perception of knowledge more as a commodity than a public good or in the terms of the General Agreement on Trade in Services ‘an internationally tradable service’ (Portnoi et al, 2010, p. 212). This pure adjustment of universities to the market needs provoked their unprecedented competition not only on the domestic level but also across the globe for ‘research funding, the ‘best and brightest’ international students, and ‘star’ faculty members’ (Portnoi et al, 2010, p. 2) what is vividly demonstrated both in the national league tables and in the mostly reputable global university ranking systems like Shanghai index or the Times Higher Education World University Ranking. The institutions’ competition is really tough as indicators in each ranking system are varied, more often than not hard to achieve and sometimes questionable presenting a very subjective view of different actors like governments, international aid agencies, individual institutions and publishers. Summarizing the contributions by Lynn Ilon, Simon Marginson, Francisco O. Ramirez, Anthony Welch it may be concluded that the k-economy and the rise of global ranking mechanisms have led to the Emerging Global Model of the elite university (offered by Kathryn Mohrman, Wanhua Ma, and David Baker in 2008) which seems too rationalized, commodity oriented and market-driven – a Model for ‘mimicking’ implying its exact imitation by the institutions from the ‘knowledge periphery’.

It is obvious that nowadays the whole globe is in a rush for the key positions in the global university rankings judging from the country case studies presented in the volumes: Argentina, Kenya, the United Arab Emirates, Malaysia, Nepal, Vietnam, Tanzania, Hong Kong, Kyrgyzstan, Azerbaijan, Australia and the countries of Europe. Yet, each following its own strategy from the introduction of cross-border programs (Hong Kong) and formation of the hybrid system of higher education (Oman, the UAE) to the shift from ‘aid to trade’ (Europe and Australia) or from traditional pedagogical modes to the student centered social constructivist pedagogy (Malaysia).

According to Alejandro D. Jacobo, Héctor R. Gertel et al quality assurance seems to be one more point guaranteeing the top place in the rankings and eventually a worldwide profile and prestige. That’s why today universities seek internationally recognized assessment criteria, internationalize curriculum and programs, involve international evaluators for the assessment of their activities thus implementing the practice of policy borrowing from developed to developing countries. The example of that is vividly demonstrated in the contributions by Hana Ameen, David W. Chapman, and Thuwayba Al-Barwani represented in each of reviewed pieces about Oman’s practice of accreditation outsourcing that in spite of large success echoed negatively the development of the national accreditation

system. Nevertheless, the utopian idea of worldwide quality assurance label and global open accreditation system offered by Westerheijden in 2003 and expressed in the chapter by Isaac Ntshoe and Moeketsi Letseka seems possible and presumably just a question of time.

The contributions by a distinguished scholar Jane Knight also included into both reviewed volumes seem mostly conceptual and serve a peculiar bridge between two discussed phenomena – global competition and cross-border partnerships – that look opposite at first sight. The author alongside with Patricia W. Croom and Stéphan Vincent-Lancrin directly addresses various aspects of internationalization. She clearly states that internationalization in higher education previously connected with ‘cooperation and solidarity among nations, improving quality and relevance in higher education, or contributing to the advancement of the research for international issues’ (Portnoi et al, 2010, p. 208) has been conceptually modified by the impact of global competition and commercial agenda characteristic for globalization. At present it is of dual character i.e. ‘internationalization at home’ (campus-based) and ‘cross-border education’ (off-campus) which is fully commercialized and represented by the following phenomena debated in the essays of the volumes: branch campuses (Patricia W. Croom, Jason E. Lane), franchises (Jane Knight), and joint/double degrees (Peter Fong, Gerard Postiglione, Jane C. Shivan, Martha N. Hill). It should be noted here that many countries have already faced the second generation cross-border education connected with the introduction of ‘regional education hubs, economic free zones, education cities, knowledge villages, gateway, and hot spots’ (Portnoi et al, 2010, p. 214). The author is sure that such transformations follow the scheme where development and cooperation in higher education (pure internationalization) are followed by the academic partnership (cross-border education) and crowned with the commercial competition (ranking) that is a measurable outcome of globalization raising a fare question of whether high ranking always means high quality. One more point here worth discussion is the student mobility called by the contributor ‘a highly competitive international recruitment business involving income generation’ (Portnoi et al, 2010, p. 213) because a very noble aim of ‘brain train’ usually fails as countries compete aggressively for qualified workforce guaranteeing their sustainable development.

A special accent on inclusive education and education for sustainable development on the regional and cross-border level is done by Ko Nomura, Yoshihiro Natori, Osamu Abe and Jouko Sarvi who concentrate their attention on the role of international networks (ULSF, COPERNICUS, GHESP, ProSPER.Net etc.) and regional development organizations (Asian Development Bank) in the ‘implementation of joint projects based on member’s interest and expertise’ (Sakamoto & Chapman, 2011, p. 223) in the discussed spheres. Obviously such partnerships help ‘higher education to lead the way’ (Sakamoto & Chapman, 2011, p. 12) in the promotion of sustainability ideas and new forms of partnerships at different levels.

The essays leave a feeling that the basis of all recent cross-border partnership initiatives is a commercial interest of different actors defining the choice of international academic partners for the better market effect and superior competition results. For example, increased commoditization of education has led to the refusal from bilateral university collaboration in favor of competitive knowledge networks

providing not only sustainable development but also sustainable funding. Such an approach might lead to the growth of social instability, lessen mutual understanding and readiness to solve the issues of global concern. However generalization of the reviewed materials demonstrates that contemporary educational partnerships are multifaceted, and their sustainability is also largely dependable on the skills of the partners in global forward-looking, strategic leadership and sufficient share of flexibility. Obviously future developments in global higher education partnerships will be positioned in the vector of smoothing contradictions on the local level aimed at the maintenance and integration of the key elements characteristic for the national culture and identity, historically established systems of domestic higher education into the new educational models.

Thoughtful reading of the volumes allows to recommend them to the university staff and students, policy makers in the sphere of higher education and a wider audience mediating upon the sustainability degree of university partnerships being formed and developed in the peculiar conditions of growing tension of globalization consequences.

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ELENA OREKHOVA & LIUDMILA POLUNINA

MODERNISING EDUCATION: INTERNATIONAL DIALOGUE AND COOPERATION

*There is neither a first nor a last word and
there are no limits to the dialogic context
(it extends into the boundless past and boundless future).
M. Bakhtin*

Abstract

The paper deals with the internationalization of higher education and its consequences both for education policy and educational practice in Russia. The internationalization is considered to be not only a political and social process but also a cultural phenomenon having a considerable impact on the modernization of education. Within this context the authors discuss three main directions of internationalization in education: student and staff mobility, academic partnership and syllabi with international dimension. The paper shows how the higher education institutions in Russia contribute to the development of internationalization working together with the universities, international associations and non-governmental organizations from different countries.

Introduction

In the view of many, it is education that is a key area in the successful democratic transition of the economies of Eastern Europe and Eurasia. In the past decades Russia has struggled to establish democratic society and revive its economy. Democracy is often equated with oligarchic rule and fiscal corruption. The process of internationalization in education, viewed as a part of its modernization, the establishment of direct links with universities and colleges in the countries with developed economy help to change this equation, by strengthening democracy through new and revised curricula, exploring the diversity of society and citizenship, via innovative pedagogy and approaches to teaching. Such links support democratic systems by showing how democratic institutions form the context within which free markets function.

We consider internationalization in education a cultural phenomenon which makes it possible to single out inner tendencies in the development of education worldwide, and in which different cultural traditions of educational systems are taken into account. Internationalization is an effective way of diminishing the negative impact of global economic processes on the educational systems and a prerequisite for successful functioning of educational institutions.

The process of internationalization is viewed by us as one of the most perspective ways of entering the contemporary educational context. In our view, it is not synonymous with “globalization” or its highest stage of development. On the contrary, internationalization may become a significant obstacle that will not allow some potentially harmful globalization tendencies to enter the fabric of educational systems.

Higher education is an important instrument in this process as from the times of their first appearance universities have been international organizations which have always generated and encouraged economic and cultural development.

Three Dimensions of Internationalization in Education

There are several approaches to viewing internationalization in education. They can be divided into activity-based, competence-based, culture-based, procedural and strategic. All these approaches are aimed at diminishing differences between the national systems of education for the sake of their preservation and development as well as for making national systems competitive on the international market. Such concept is in full agreement with the mission of the Bologna process, which aims at making higher educational systems in Europe compatible preserving their autonomous status, variety and strong position in the international education market.

The process of internationalization when viewed in such light should be carried out along the following main directions of development:

- Exchange programs (students and professors);
- Academic links between universities;
- Specially developed syllabi with an international dimension.

The main strategy of work in the first two directions is internationalization of the student and teaching body. In many countries teaching foreign students is a profitable kind of activity which is ensured by higher tuition fees paid by international students compared to domestic students. However, we should not forget about the main activities of the university which are traditionally associated with its successful functioning. They include the provision of education, research and community service. They maintain university's good reputation as one of most democratic structures in the educational system which ensures the application of the principle of access to education for all and the principle of equal rights.

The policy of internationalizing the student body ensures the creation of an open society in the country whose educational system will be internationally recognized. Such work should be carried out under the framework of collaboration with partner universities. Organized and controlled internationalization of the student and teaching body arranged as a system of exchange programs may become an effective tool in eradicating "trans-nationalization" of education which has created conditions for establishing a market for small companies offering their services in arranging educational programs abroad. Such companies are purely commercial organizations which work through off-shore institutions and Internet providers making educational services more expensive and less accessible.

A balanced approach to the standard of such education should be ensured by the transparency in the organization of exchange programs, access to information and competent control on the part of the national structures as well as cooperation and mobility of national agencies working in the sphere of international education. Exchange programs in the contemporary context are one of the few methods of preventing the "brain drain" that has affected many universities in the countries with developing economies. In this way universities assure the fulfillment of one of its main functions – to guarantee academic order and stability.

Internationally devised syllabi is another direction in which such cooperation can be indispensable. When training students we should take into consideration the

international dimension of their future career, and depending on their area of specialization offer comparative studies of such disciplines as Education, Law, Literature, Culture, etc. Without doubt foreign language teaching and learning should be carried out on an entirely new level which should ensure the ability of the students and graduates to participate in the intercultural dialogue and exchange programs.

The traditional conservative educational model, which has historically been formed in Russia, is also characteristic of many countries in the world. Contemporary educational context requires a change of priorities especially in the field of humanitarian education. Human beings are free agents who have the right to choose what kind of education they should pursue. The realization of this principle does not require a change of the basis of the whole educational system or its organizational foundation. What it does require though is a change of the aims and content of some educational programs.

A harmonic combination of the student-centered approach with a traditional knowledge-oriented approach characteristic of the Russian educational tradition will ensure the creation of a manageable system which will synthesize the achievements of international and national schools of education.

In the modern world in which the processes of integration of education are accelerated, there is also a visible tendency for general inter-relatedness and the transfer of the capital, information and intellectual resources cannot be stopped by any borders. That is why, the demand for an educational pattern which combines the best out of different systems and preserves its identity is unquestionable.

The Case of Tula Lev Tolstoy Pedagogical University

The understanding of the strategic role of education in the modern world and the benefits that might be brought about by setting up direct links with a university functioning in an established free market economy and democratic society led Tula Lev Tolstoy State Pedagogical University in Russia to seeking partner relations with universities in Europe, Asia and America. The collaboration programs center on reciprocal faculty exchanges, curriculum development, Internet service provision, and outreach, in order to develop mutual understanding and cooperation between the educational institutions, and reach out to a wider audience. The vision behind establishing this kind of partnership between the universities has included their similarities in the general mission and goals as well as in the existing programs and curricula.

Tula Lev Tolstoy State Pedagogical University was founded in 1938 with the view of providing liberal arts and teacher training education for the region. Currently, it comprises 10 faculties where students are trained in 40 specialties at the undergraduate and 22 at graduate level. It serves a clientele of 4200 full-time and 2300 part-time students. In the last few years it has always been included in the Ministry of Education's list of top ten best pedagogical universities in Russia. The university has been involved in internationalizing education for many years. It has been offering degree-granting programs to international students since 1977.

Another factor that played a decisive role in establishing the partner relationships was the support of different stakeholders such as, for example, the Tula-Albany Alliance, a non-governmental organization that has been running a

range of exchange programs between the Capital Region of New York State and the Tula Region in Russia on the base of the network of links with educational, governmental and other institutions in the two regions. The cooperation of the two cities (Tula and Albany) goes back to 1993 when the Proclamation for Twinning was adopted. It became the result of the realization of considerable similarities of the two cities situated on the banks of major rivers and serving as the government centers for their regions. Both cities also have a reputation for fine schools of higher learning and other cultural interests.

Being a member of such authoritative international organizations as International Association of Universities and European Association of Universities our university takes part in many activities promoting the development of partnership between higher education institutions throughout the world including the Tuning project. The exchange of experience of working in similar areas is beneficial for the universities as it provides better solutions to the emerging problems and help to plan their activities in some major areas bearing in mind the experience of the partner.

One of the tangible results of the cooperation between the institutions is the exchange programs which allow to establish direct links between faculty and serves as project-prompter for further cooperation. The exchanges and the follow-up activities are deliberately organized as a series of micro-dialogues which leads to establishing direct links between the faculty and corresponding departments. Such “micro-dialogue” encourages a wide variety of “grass-roots” initiatives and significantly contributes to the overall success of the inter-university program of exchange. The experience of the successful dialogue between the higher education institutions in different countries can take a new turn in the program of its dissemination to secondary educational establishments. This can contribute to involving younger generation into the inter-cultural dialogue to develop tolerance and contribute to the stability of the peace in the world.

Conclusion

The universities that pursue common goals may find other areas of joint development possible as a result of their close consultation and collaboration while working on the joint projects. We are sure that only working together the universities of the world can find the right balance in combining their national traditions and international trends in the contemporary educational context: “At any moment in the development of the dialogue there are immense, boundless masses of forgotten contextual meanings, but at certain moments of the dialogue’s subsequent development along the way they are recalled and invigorated in renewed form (in a new context)” (M. Bakhtin, 1986, p. 170).

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ВЗАИМОДЕЙСТВИЕ УЧИТЕЛЯ-ЛОГОПЕДА И РОДИТЕЛЕЙ КАК УСЛОВИЕ ПОВЫШЕНИЯ ЭФФЕКТИВНОСТИ КОРРЕКЦИОННОЙ РАБОТЫ С ДЕТЬМИ С НАРУШЕНИЕМ РЕЧИ

THE COMMUNICATION BETWEEN SPEECH THERAPIST AND PARENTS AS A WAY OF CORRECTION WORK IMPROVEMENT WITH CHILDREN HAVING POOR SPEECH

Аннотация / Abstract

В данной статье рассматривается модель взаимодействия учителя-логопеда и родителей как одно из направлений логопедической работы по формированию речи детей дошкольного возраста с нарушением речи.

In this article a model of communication between speech therapist and parents as one of the ways of correction work for forming speech of children with poor speech is researched.

Речь является одним из компонентов развития ребенка, решение проблем, связанных с её формированием является одной из задач речевого воспитания детей. Это, прежде всего, связано с социальной значимостью. Именно в речи реализуется основная коммуникативная функция языка.

Одной из причин снижения уровня речевого развития дошкольников является пассивность и неосведомленность родителей в вопросах речевого развития детей. Участие родителей в речевом развитии ребенка играет большую роль. Речь детей формируется под влиянием речи взрослых.

В современной концепции дошкольного образования Российской Федерации указано, что взаимодействие с семьей, имеющей ребенка с нарушением речи должно являться одной из задач педагогического процесса.

В законе Российской Федерации "Об образовании" говорится, что "Родители являются первыми педагогами. Они обязаны заложить основы физического, нравственного и интеллектуального развития личности ребёнка в раннем детстве". В современных социально-экономических условиях жизни страны возрастают требования к системе дошкольного образования, следовательно, возникает проблема повышения эффективности логопедической работы. Однако, исходя из опыта работы, специалисты отмечают, что работы логопеда оказывается недостаточно. Возникает необходимость привлечения родителей к данному виду деятельности.

Как отмечает Чиркина Г. В., опыт организации логопедической помощи в России и оценка её эффективности убедительно показали, что прогнозирование возможностей интеграции ребенка с речевым нарушением в общеобразовательную среду определяется не только диагнозом и формой нарушения, но сложным взаимодействием группы факторов, отражающих личностное, интеллектуальное, психофизиологическое развитие каждого ребенка, а также интенсивностью и адекватностью коррекционных мероприятий в дошкольном периоде [5].

Взаимодействие учителя-логопеда и родителей следует рассматривать как обязательное условие в логопедической работе с детьми, имеющими нарушения речи. Необходимо не только задействовать их в педагогическом процессе, но и организовать их деятельность, повышая уровень компетенции в вопросах нарушения речи и ее формирования у детей. Большинство родителей нуждаются в педагогической поддержке, методическом сопровождении [1; 6].

В настоящее время существует достаточно разработок по формированию речи в условиях детского сада, однако при этом не рассматривается совместная работа логопеда и родителей как условие формирования речи ребенка и представляет собой малоизученную теоретическую и практическую область знаний в системе дошкольного коррекционного образования.

Именно поэтому, в данной статье рассматривается взаимодействие логопеда и родителей, как условие повышения эффективности работы по формированию речи детей дошкольного возраста с нарушением речи. Тесное взаимодействие логопеда и родителей является основой более успешной и эффективной работы по формированию речи у детей с нарушением речи. При этом можно определить следующие направления работы: 1) повышение уровня сформированности речи детей; 2) вовлечение родителей в педагогический процесс; 3) повышение уровня родительской компетенции по проблеме формирования речи детей с нарушениями речи; 4) формирование ответственности родителей за качество домашних занятий с детьми.

На наш взгляд можно выделить следующие условия повышения эффективности логопедической работы с привлечением родителей детей с нарушениями речи:

- участие родителей в педагогическом процессе;
- оказание педагогической поддержки родителям, имеющих детей с нарушением речи;
- создание методического обеспечения;
- проведение работы по повышению компетентности родителей в вопросе формирования речи детей с нарушениями речи;
- организация постоянной обратной связи с родителями;
- оказание помощи в организации речевой среды в семейно-бытовых условиях.

Для осуществления работы по выделенным направлениям и с учетом указанных условий нами была разработана и внедрена образовательная модель взаимодействия логопеда и родителей в работе по формированию речи у детей с нарушением речи.

Реализация модели состояла из следующих этапов логопедической работы: подготовительного, организационного, практического, контрольно-оценочного.

Подготовительный этап определял пути взаимодействия, постановку целей, формулирование основных задач и включал в себя отбор форм взаимодействия с семьями детей, участвующих в педагогическом процессе (анкеты, опросы, беседы и др.), разработку перспективного плана работы с родителями по формированию речи детей на период проведения логопедической работы.

Целью организационного этапа являлось знакомство с родителями, введение их в проблему, демонстрация уровня речевого развития их ребенка.

На практическом этапе осуществлялась работа по формированию у родителей специальных представлений по проблеме, а также взаимодействие с ними по схеме: логопед – родитель, родитель – ребенок, в рамках разработанной модели.

Значимость форм работы с родителями трудно переоценить. Необходимость их использования важна не только для педагогов, но, прежде всего, для родителей, чьи дети посещают дошкольное учреждение [3; 4]. В модели были учтены различные формы сотрудничества.

По тому, насколько активно родители взаимодействуют с учителем-логопедом, формы взаимодействия подразделяются на активные и пассивные.

К активным формам относятся те, в которых родители являются не просто слушателями, а активными участниками, например:

- родительские собрания (аудио-, видеозапись; анкетирование; портфолио);
- выполнение домашних заданий;
- создание коррекционно-развивающей среды (кабинета, комнаты);
- семинары-практикумы;
- «круглый стол»;
- организация выставок;
- консультирования (индивидуальные, групповые).

При пассивном участии родители в большей степени находятся в роли наблюдателя. При этом используются такие формы, как:

- свободное посещение занятий и «Дни открытых дверей»;
- логопедические уголки;
- праздники;
- библиотека для родителей.

Родительские собрания и семинары-практикумы дают возможность обсудить наиболее интересующие родителей вопросы. Необходимо, чтобы особое внимание на них уделялось роли семьи в речевом развитии ребенка, рассказыванию наиболее эффективных приемов, играх и упражнениях. Таким образом, это позволило многим родителям ответить на вопросы которые их сильно волновали и интересовали.

Анкетирование – особая форма взаимодействия, т. к. предполагает жёстко фиксированный порядок, содержание и форму вопросов, ясное указание способов ответа. При помощи анкетирования мы выяснили особенности семейного воспитания, положительный опыт родителей, их трудности, ошибки. Отвечая на вопросы анкеты, родители задумывались о проблемах воспитания, об особенностях воспитания ребёнка, а также высказывали свои пожелания относительно воспитательного процесса в дошкольном образовательном учреждении.

Кроме этого, в конце собрания родителям давали памятки-буклеты с кратким содержанием проведенного собрания, играми, упражнениями по формированию речи детей в домашних условиях.

Семинары-практикумы использовались для практического обучения родителей. Эта форма работы давала возможность рассказать о способах и приемах обучения и показать их: как читать книгу с ребенком, беседовать о прочитанном, рассматривать иллюстрации и беседовать по ним и др. По инициативе некоторых родителей, упражнения, вызывающие затруднения и вопросы, выполнялись на таких практикумах.

Необходимой формой взаимодействия мы посчитали и посещение занятий логопеда. Раз в неделю родители приглашались на подгрупповые занятия логопеда с детьми по развитию речи. На таких занятиях родители наблюдали практическое применение приемов по формированию речи специалистом, а также могли отметить для себя, как занимается их ребенок, на что нужно больше уделять внимание. Родители приглашались на беседу-обсуждение увиденного занятия.

Библиотека игр и упражнений для родителей является стимулом к активному участию родителей в коррекционном процессе. Родители могли воспользоваться подбором практического материала. Им предлагался материал, объединённый одной лексической темой, которая включала в себя задания на формирование речи.

Для выполнения домашних заданий родителей с детьми нами была разработана специальная тетрадь, содержащая упражнения на формирование речи по лексическим темам. Тетрадь значительно облегчила домашние занятия с детьми, поскольку содержала специально подобранный речевой материал и включала задания как на повторение материала занятий логопеда, так и на самостоятельную работу по формированию речи.

Взаимодействие обязательно подразумевает контроль, или обратную связь; при этом контроль должен быть ненавязчивым, опосредованным. Рабочая тетрадь служила предметом отчетности и обратной связи с родителями и проверялась по завершении каждой лексической темы. Родители относились ответственно к выполнению заданий по данной тетради. Тетради сдавались вовремя, были полностью заполнены по текущей лексической теме. Была отмечена результативность данных занятий.

Непрерывная связь с родителями может осуществляться с помощью Интернета посредством блогов, сайтов, электронной почты дошкольного учреждения.

Компьютерные технологии становятся неотъемлемой частью жизни современных людей, они внедряются в различные сферы жизни, в том числе и в сферу дошкольного образования и позволяет сделать работу учителя-логопеда более продуктивной и эффективной.

Очень часто современным родителям бывает трудно найти время для общения с педагогом, особенно если они не видят в этом необходимости. Задача логопеда в работе с родителями состоит не только в том, чтобы помочь осознать свою роль в процессе развития ребенка, но и в том, чтобы убедить родителей в необходимости совместной с логопедом ежедневной кропотливой работы по преодолению речевых нарушений у ребенка [2].

Поэтому современный педагог наряду с традиционными средствами работы с родителями должен использовать и нестандартные средства, одно из них — Интернет-сайт.

Интернет-сайт – это совокупность электронных документов юридических лиц или учреждений в компьютерной сети, объединенных под одним адресом. Он призван выполнять ряд функций: организационную, рекламную, имиджевую, образовательную, управленческую, коммуникативную.

Логопед использовал интернет-сайт для предоставления родителям актуальной информации в области дошкольного образования,

консультирования по вопросам обучения и воспитания детей с нарушением речи.

Родители получали возможность дистанционно общаться не только с логопедом детского сада, но и другими специалистами учреждения, обменивались мнениями и высказывали рекомендации по улучшению работы.

На базе интернет-сайта были созданы консультативный центр, родительский клуб, проводились семинары-практикумы, интернет-конференции, мастер-классы и т.п. На страницах сайта размещались обучающие игры, направленные на коррекцию речевых расстройств.

В методическом блоке оказывалась профессиональная логопедическая помощь родителям в виде всевозможных речевых игр, упражнений, развлечений, методик, авторских пособий, перечня мультфильмов, используемых при прохождении лексических тем.

Представленная библиотека игр и упражнений являлась стимулом к активному участию родителей в коррекционном процессе. Родители могли воспользоваться подбором практического материала, который включал в себя лексические, грамматические, словарные задания, задания на развитие внимания, памяти. В электронной библиотеке хранились игры и упражнения, используемые на фронтальных и индивидуальных логопедических занятиях. Родители могли дома, просмотрев представленный материал, использовать их для занятий с детьми. Благодаря оригинальным идеям, предложениям самих родителей, электронная библиотека пополнялась подбором практического материала.

Ещё одно средство виртуального контакта – электронная почта, при помощи которой логопед без визуального контакта консультировал родителей, отвечал на вопросы, рассылал индивидуальные задания (карточки с заданиями, картинные материалы, памятки и т.п.). При помощи электронной почты учитель-логопед давал рекомендации, видео консультации, касающиеся коррекционного процесса, рассылал приглашения на родительские собрания, а также контролировал своевременное выполнение домашних заданий (например, по постановке или автоматизации звуков) в режиме Online. Электронная почта давала возможность обмениваться различными тематическими ссылками на сайты. Таким образом, родители постепенно становились активными участниками образовательного и воспитательного процесса.

Для овладения родителями определенными теоретическими знаниями логопедии использовались мультимедийные презентации по различным темам. Кроме того, они позволяли помочь родителям правильно подобрать обучающие компьютерные игры, программы, компьютерные упражнения для занятий в домашних условиях. Родителям предлагались специально разработанные мультимедийные пособия для занятий с детьми дома. Они включали в себя как задания для занятий с детьми, так и рекомендации к их проведению, различные способы и приемы формирования речи и др.

Индивидуальные консультации с родителем проводились в виде «электронных консультаций» или так называемые «консультации Online». На консультациях давались подробные разъяснения по выполнению упражнений по заданиям логопеда, расшифровывались непонятные термины и

формулировки. Родителям давались советы, как организовать деятельность детей дома так, чтобы помимо функции развлечения она выполняла бы еще и развивающую. Родители относились к таким советам с интересом. Современным средством логопедического просвещения родителей выступает блог (сетевой журнал событий). Учитель-логопед использовал его для выражения авторской позиции, создания персонального портфолио, комментирования.

Описанные формы работы с родителями эффективно применялись логопедами, наполнялись новым содержанием в соответствии с требованиями, предъявляемыми к образованию и воспитанию детей дошкольного возраста.

Все изложенное позволяет рассматривать взаимодействие логопеда и родителей как обязательное условие в процессе формирования речи детей, а описанная модель взаимодействия способствовала установлению партнерских отношений и повышения компетенции родителей в области обучения и воспитания детей с нарушением речи.

Сочетание традиционных и современных методов, форм, средств педагогического воздействия способствовало повышению знаний родителей и интереса к делу воспитания детей с нарушениями речи.

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ESP TEACHING AT THE INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN MODERN RUSSIA: PROBLEMS AND PERSPECTIVES

Abstract

The author analyses ESP teaching at the institutions of higher education in modern Russia, explains the main problems and suggests the ways of their solving, details the quality control system of the students' progress improvement, presents the complex approach to interactive ESP teaching and views it as an integral part of up-to-date interdisciplinary training.

Reforming Russian higher education system in accordance with the main postulates of Bologna process is in the spotlight of Russian higher education modernization. European integration as well as labor market internationalization leads to unification of demands to graduates' qualifications in the territory of different European countries.

Concepts of the education system of the Russian Federation evolve. The third generation standards of education help to include our country into the unified educational European space.

At present in Russia there exist two educational paradigms: the Russian one and the Bologna one [3, p. 344]. They can be described as following:

- 1) traditional Russian qualifications (specialists – postgraduates and PhDs – Doctors) – frame of reference of the Bologna process (Bachelors – Masters – Doctors);
- 2) subject-oriented approach – module-oriented approach to curriculum development;
- 3) approach «knowledge – abilities – skills» – competence approach to assessing students' progress;
- 4) National Government education standards – qualification standards valid for the whole Europe;
- 5) academic activity within one higher educational institution, region, state – academic mobility of students and lecturers;
- 6) introduction of the one performance assessing system (courses, curricula, lecturers' workload) in the terms of units clear for both students and lecturers;
- 7) compulsory subjects – individual curriculum modeling etc.

Thus the notion “higher education” is becoming broader due to modernization.

Higher educational institutions in Russia compete to each other, the competition being tough because of the labor market underdevelopment, lack of investments and the forecasted decrease of the potential students' number in connection with demographic problems.

Competitiveness of the higher educational institution depends on the quality of education, which must satisfy the target audience's demands in intellectual, cultural

and moral development, i.e. knowledge base and professional and social skills base forming harmonious personality.

Development, implementation and maintenance of the education quality management system become the necessary conditions for successful survival of a higher educational institution. Quality is viewed as the degree of correspondence of the actual characteristics to the norms demands.

Quality control system of a higher educational institution throughout the world is based on the process-oriented approach. Process means the interconnected activities, transforming inputs into outputs. Thus, managing processes guarantees forecasted quality, from recruiting applicants to their successful employment after graduating from the higher educational institution.

We can apply PDCA (Plan-Do-Check-Act) cycle to all the processes.

The role of the higher educational institution means the following:

- a. assess and satisfy the needs and expectations of the target audience and the stakeholders (higher education employees, undergraduates, their parents, employers, society as a whole);
- b. maintain and improve the higher education institution work.

We single out the four principles of quality management at the higher educational institution:

- meeting the target audience needs (employers' and undergraduates' needs);
- process-oriented approach;
- system approach;
- mutually beneficial relations with the partners.

The main processes are planning of the educational activity, provision of education services, research.

Planning of the educational activity means development of curriculum, instruction books, progress monitoring (rate system, current and final progress testing). This process is implemented by the department of foreign languages of the Balakovo branch of the Russian Presidential Academy of the National Economy and Public Administration at the high level. The department published several instruction books for students, developed rate system monitoring the students' progress, compiled different kinds of tests and exercises for grammar, vocabulary and comprehension check.

Services provision process comprises applicants' recruitment, undergraduates teaching, and further education provision.

Research process means students' and lecturers' research work, taking part in the conferences, publication of abstracts and articles. Students make reports at the conferences of different levels: municipal, regional, national, international; take part in the students' exchange programs.

Additional processes of the higher educational institutions are resources management, personnel management, engineering management. Resources management presupposes instruction books and audio-visual aids availability. It's necessary to note that authentic instruction books are necessary for EFL and ESP teaching. We use Oxford University Press and Cambridge University Press manuals and instruction books comprising authentic texts in English.

Personnel management means upgrade courses for the lecturers according to the certain schedule. ESP teachers often attend upgrade courses organized by the

leading higher educational institutions, take part in trainings and internships thus improving their skill base.

Engineering management means ICT availability. There are two computer classes in our branch, all the students and lecturers have Internet access and can use Internet resources for learning.

ESP teaching presupposes working with adult students (according to the Bachelors' curriculum special courses and faculties in English language are scheduled for the second and the third years of studies). Working with the adult target audience means continuous use of the personality resources of the grown-ups.

Thus, some researchers (D. B. Nikulicheva and others) suggest using cognitive potential of the grammatical system of the foreign language as the model of linguistic self-understanding and verbal self-manifestation of a person in the world [1, p. 310].

Researchers base their conclusions on the fundamental perception of the child's ontogenesis impossible without language and speech practice. ESP study done by a grown-up, according to their opinion, has to solve the similar problem – to form the personality capable to communicate in the foreign language. This helps to achieve spontaneous fluency and authenticity of speech practice. Still it's necessary to note that aspiration to reconstruct child's speech development and growth during the process of teaching adults becomes a kind of simulation.

Lecturers practicing communicative methods of ESP teaching are often reproached for infantilizing the education process due to ignoring cognitive potential of the grown-ups. The goal of the D. B. Nikulicheva's method is to reconstruct such a mode of communication in a foreign language that could help to simulate intensive going through the process of personality development from the baby talk stage to verbal realizing of self-presentation, describing one's aims, values and abilities by means of a foreign language.

It's necessary to recollect and reconstruct emotions of a child who wants to tell something important to the people who are close to him. Then there begins training of prosodic and articulation patterns of the foreign language in the mode of acoustic imitation.

After that the prosodic patterns are filled with the linguistic content presented by wide range of vocabulary variants. At this step the dialogs are implemented, they are reproduced by the students according to the norms of speech fluency and intonation patterns rules. Communication process becomes close to natural one because it comprises relevant content for each person providing discussion of his typical locations, activities, traits, goals and values.

Some grammar rules and structure patterns are being learnt, they are associated with some cognitive models, characteristic of different levels of personality linguistic development.

Later there appear other tasks: precise meaning expression, grammatical, stylistic and pragmatic correctness of speech, denoting different notions by the variety of different linguistic means, capability to use terminology and idioms, fluency and spontaneous character of speech.

Much attention is paid to the development of conversational skills and error correction.

According to the opinion of J. A. Komarova a certain stereotype about structure of general and specific abilities to foreign language learning is already set.

Individual differences in abilities and talents are described by such parameters as:

- 1) synchronism – lack of simultaneity;
- 2) analytical way of thinking – synthetic way of thinking;
- 3) self-regulation – active position;
- 4) consistency – impulsiveness;
- 5) abstract way of thinking – precise way of thinking;
- 6) logicity – integrated perception;
- 7) grasp of the whole phenomena – spatial thinking etc.

Forms of activity of the people having different strategies of ESP learning are determined by a certain set of innate abilities, this makes individual characteristics very stable.

For example, such innate factors can be as following: nervous system specifics, cerebral hemispheres interconnection, the leading type of analyzer and so on.

Researchers studying adult audience, singled out several types of language mastering:

- 1) communicative speech-oriented, cognitive linguistic and the mixed one (communicative linguistic);
- 2) extroverted and introverted;
- 3) impulsive and reflexive etc.

The above mentioned types make it possible to classify educational activity in accordance with three basic programs of differentiation:

- 1) according to the level of linguistic talent and abilities;
- 2) according to the level of knowledge and skill base;
- 3) according to the personality type and social status as well as outlook, external or internal motivation, sphere of interests and aspirations, communicative culture of the students.

Each program of differentiation presupposes highlighting certain aspect of the ESP learning depending on each category of students. Specialists in linguo-didactics pay special attention to terminology recognizing that special vocabulary is subdivided into two layers differentiated by stylistic and connotative features: terms denoting “specialized concepts” and “professionalisms” [3, p. 325]. Studying these two layers is very specific. Ignoring their differences can cause misunderstanding during professional communication. Even terms in actual communication may have synonyms and emotional connotation. Because of this according to S. S. Polskaya implementing every term into speech practice is not easy. In the situation when terms have synonyms they must be both introduced in the active vocabulary of the students. It's also important to pay attention to the frequency of the term's usage as some terms remain up to date, others become obsolete. For students learning ESP it's important to know some “professionalisms”. Certainly it's hard to learn all of such vocabulary units as they are occasionally used, become obsolete very soon and are not systematized. Criterion of such vocabulary necessity is frequency in mass media. Other terms can be easily learnt after graduates begin their own professional activity.

To overcome the difficulties of communicating with professionals it's easier for those who are competent in different spheres.

The present day researches in different fields have integrated character and are denoted as "interdisciplinary" ones. Modern science is becoming problem-oriented, not subject-oriented. Specialists from different fields accumulate their intellectual resources and cooperate. This helps to solve the existing issues in extraordinary ways.

Interdisciplinary connections are viewed by the researchers as a pedagogical category for denoting synthesizing integrative relationships between objects, phenomena and processes of real life, reflected in the content, forms and methods of the educational process and performing educational and developing functions. Interdisciplinary connections form informational, assessing, projecting, communicative competences viewed as "key competences". Interdisciplinary connections also form "emotional intelligence", i.e. ability to build professional communication on the basis of psychological characteristics of opponents.

Key competences can be acquired by the students under certain conditions: education through activities and simulations, aimed at autonomous and responsible results of the work and organization of productive team work.

Interdisciplinary cooperation during ESP learning must form competences, corresponding to the certain profile.

ESP is a less broad concept than key notion "communicative competence". ESP is developed at the non-linguistic institutions and faculties. It is relatively stable integrated characteristic of an active subject of education, helping to realize the linguistic knowledge and speech performance skills during communication.

It's a combination of linguistic, socio-linguistic and subject sub-competences.

At present teaching translation and interpretation is an urgent question as there exists a new qualification within further education curriculum – translator in the sphere of professional communication. According to this education trend there appeared a shift from elitist translators' training to the mass training of such professionals.

The main task of today is to work out and to implement the best teaching methodology taking into consideration the new challenges and experience of the interdisciplinary approach.

Tasks at courses are variable and depend on the stage of the study and the type of the selected translation. Those tasks presuppose the choice of exercises and their order. Traditionally they single out following types of exercises: linguistic, communicative (conversational), operational exercises and tasks for mnemonics development.

It is advisable to teach ESP translation within the complex approach to interactive method. We view interactive method as harmonizing tutorials having interactive function and computer language-didactics, as synthesis of cognitive and communicative approach to ESP teaching.

We think that the following tutorials forms include interactive function: role plays, business games, simulations, trainings, case studies, Socratic dialogs, Internet surfing for information search, e-mail projects, multimedia manuals, "brain storming", computer tests (on-line and off-line). We categorize the interactive studies according to the functions (current and final control of ESP formation level,

games playing, problem solving); according to the form (group studies, independent computer work, computer tests); according to the didactic purpose in ESP formation (conversation, written dialog, speech performance, language competence, listening and reading skills).

Interactive teaching presupposes indirect and direct cooperation of the active subjects, helping to solve teaching tasks more effectively by using the potential of participants' cooperation and interaction. Interaction means information, activities, values, meanings exchange and personal development as well. Interactive study cycle includes different stages: certain experience (role-play, interactive exercise with feedback, case-study); understanding of this experience; introspection (reflection); new skills practical implementation.

During traditional methods of teaching there are no stages of certain experience and introspection, and new skills practical implementation is replaced by the revision of the learnt material. Traditional teaching offers only generalization, and students become passive listeners, applying foreign language according to the personal degree of interest to the subject. Interactive teaching means teaching of communication by means of communication.

Interdisciplinary approach to ESP teaching helps educators to develop ESP elements: linguistic, sociolinguistic and subject-oriented ones. Linguistic competence is reflected in correct recognition and use of the foreign language forms (presupposes knowledge of different linguistic aspects and becomes a foundation for correct formulation and understanding of the utterance as an act of communication). Sociolinguistic competence is closely connected with the linguistic competence and defines the ability to choose linguistic units in accordance with the communicative situation. Subject-oriented competence is ability to correlate the meaning of the utterance with the professional theme.

ESP competence is multifaceted; it comprises motivation, understanding, and implementation steps. Linguistic knowledge is its quantitative aspect, abilities and skills development is its qualitative aspect. During ESP development students also build their values system as they have to communicate in the simulated situations of professional international events. Thus interdisciplinary approach and complex implementation of the interactive method of teaching can intensify ESP formation and development of the future professionals.

At present training in Russian higher educational institutions is focused at development of students as unique personalities capable to choose sphere of professional interests, to organize work for self-education. The role of knowledge is not minimized but knowledge is not a goal any more, it is means of students' development.

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OLGA VOLOSHINA-PALA**COMPETENCY-BASED APPROACH TO EDUCATION IN INTERNATIONAL DOCUMENTS AND THEORETICAL RESEARCHES OF EDUCATORS IN GREAT BRITAIN****Abstract**

Modern educators consider that the acquiring of important for life competencies can give an individual the opportunities to orient in a modern society, informational space, changing development of labour and post-graduation education. Competency-based approach became a new conceptual orientation of schools in foreign countries and causes a number of discussions in international and national levels of different countries.

Introduction

Significant developments in this direction have been made since 80's by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development which experts collect and analyze data on education in different countries from the standpoint of efficiency and effectiveness, and systematically seek to implement competency in the essence of education. The OECD developments are based on several provisions that are now fundamental to most relevant studies being performed by other institutions, organizations and professionals working in this sphere. Below are represented the main ones:

- Formation of competencies is a result of interaction of many different factors;
- Modern life demands from an individual acquiring a set of skills called key competencies;
- Choice of the most important (key) competencies should be made at a fundamental level taking into account current perception of society, an individual and interaction between them;
- An impact of cultural and other contexts of a society and a nation should be taken into account;
- Selection and identification of key competencies is influenced by subjective factors related to an individual such as age, sex, social status, etc.;
- Selection and identification of key competencies requires a broad discussion among different specialists and representatives of various social groups.

The selection, identification and further development of key competencies and identification of the development indicators is possible only under compliance with the above conditions [2, p. 10].

Discussion

According to the OECD definition, the concept of key competencies is useful to apply only to those competencies that enable an individual to participate effectively in many social spheres and contribute to improving the quality of society and personal success. Therefore, they are interpreted as a main set of very general

concepts being detailed in knowledge, abilities, skills, values and attitudes by training sectors and spheres of students' life.

Within the category 'autonomous action', the key ideas are the development of an individual and his/her autonomy in terms of making choice and acting in a given context. Therefore, the key competencies are as follows:

- the ability to protect and take care of the responsibilities, rights, interests and needs of other individuals, that presumes the ability to make a choice from the standpoint of a citizen, family member, worker, consumer, etc.;
- the ability to make and implement plans and individual projects allows you to define and substantiate the objectives considered the reason for being and correlate them with your own values;
- the ability to act in a large/broad context means that an individual is quite aware of how the different systems work, of his/her own position within them, of the possible consequences of their actions, and takes into account many factors in his/her while making a choice of actions [1].

Let's follow the evolution of approaches to key competencies in the emerging common European educational space having analyzed the milestone documents and acts: White Paper on Education and Training (European Commission, 1996), A Memorandum on Lifelong Learning (European Commission, 2000), e-Europe 2005: An information society for all, Commission's Action Plan for Skills and Mobility (European Commission, 2002), Key Competencies: A Developing concept in General Compulsory Education (European Network of Information and Documentation, 2002), etc.

The important document which outlined European approaches to the definition of basic skills in the context of the new strategic goals of social development was the Materials of the Lisbon Summit of the European Council (2000). By providing the substantiation to the ability to learn throughout life, the Lisbon summit identified the following groups of basic skills:

- IT skills;
- Foreign languages;
- Technological culture;
- Entrepreneurship;
- Interpersonal and social competencies;
- Learning skills;
- General culture [3].

At the beginning of the XXI century the European Educational Information And Documentation Network (EURIDICE) made public a base document of the European Commission - Key Competencies: A Developing Concept in General Compulsory Education [7]. Outlining the new goals of education for the period up to 2010, this document 'aggregates' or integrates approaches to key competencies of the European Union. Let us provide details of the materials used in Great Britain (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) [4].

The emphasis was made on the ability of each individual to use his/her skills in the broad context of different activities, constantly making decisions about when and what skills should apply. Therefore, during the update of the National Curriculum of School Education - 1995 in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, the binding (normative) component was significantly reduced and schools were given

rights to allocate more curriculum time for developing students in three basic skills of three areas:

- Communications,
- Calculation,
- Information and communications (IT) technologies [3].

Simultaneously, the qualification requirements for 16-19 year-old citizens of the country were reviewed in the same manner and in September 2000 the basic skills have started being widely implemented in the English context. However, the study found that the process did not involve the Curriculum of Northern Ireland - the following mandatory components (basic skills) were designated for 14-16 year-old students (fourth stage) only at the beginning of the XXI century:

- The ability to operate under changing conditions showing flexibility in behavior;
- Personal-oriented, social education and basics of healthcare;
- Citizenship;
- Work efficiency.

It should be mentioned that the term 'basic skills' in the UK is also widely used in the field of adult education in regards to language and numerical literacy. In this context, the Basic Skills Agency defines them as 'the ability to read, write and speak English (Welsh), use mathematics at the level of necessary production functions and in a society as a whole' [5].

Concerning the compulsory school education, the selection and justification of key competencies in the UK took place much later, mostly in recent years. From 2000-2001 the Modern National Curriculum for compulsory school education in England has been inclusive of the requirements to six areas of skills identified as basic skills because they help students improve their learning and self-presentation in education, work, and life. The key areas have been identified the following ones:

- Communication;
- Calculation skills;
- Informational technologies (IT);
- Cooperation with other individual/team work;
- Improvement of personal learning and its representation;
- Amelioration and settlement of problems [4].

The first three key areas were provided top priority status and public support (the nation-wide support strategies in compulsory education league launched), namely:

- The National Literacy Strategy (NLS) aimed at the development of communicative skills in elementary school pupils.
- The National Numeracy Strategy (NNS) aimed at the development of computational skills in elementary school pupils.
- The National Information and Communications Technologies Strategy which should be actualized in learning the English literature, mathematics, and natural sciences in line with other national strategies (verbal and numerical literacy) [8].

The 'concept of numerical literacy' is defined as "key vital skill without which children will feel themselves inferior throughout their lifetime".

The 'competency in information and communication technologies' is far beyond gaining basic skills and technologies by students. It presumes development of the aptitude for imaginative and flexible use of technology, as well as for the identification and application of appropriate knowledge, skills and comprehensions [7].

In addition to the above mentioned basic skills, the National Curriculum also involves the development of wide range of skills in elementary school pupils, such as the ability to think (information processing skills, the ability to argue/debate, research skills, ability to think creatively, the ability to evaluate, etc.), as well as financial ability, entrepreneurial skills, and professional training.

All this key areas of skills are given in details in the National Curriculum for compulsory education in Great Britain. In addition, the English National Curriculum contains a note specifying the manner in which basic skills should be included in school curricula and programs. Let's analyze the identification of key areas of skills of the National Curriculum.

The 'communication' is defined in the document as a key skill that involves the ability to speak, listen, read and write. The ability to speak and listen requires the ability to communicate effectively in various situations, including effective participation in group discussions. The ability to read and write is the ability to read fluently literary and other texts, critically interpret the reads, write quickly, and do critical analysis of various texts including own and outsider ones [6].

The ability to develop this crucial skill is greatly attributable to the school subject 'English language' and in the use of language in the study of other subjects.

'Numerical skill' means key skill of using numbers inclusive of the development of ability for mental calculation and the ability to apply it in different contexts, understanding and use of mathematical language related to numbers and verbal score for resolving complex problems and explaining their reasons, the ability to use calculation skills, understanding of arithmetic operations and the use of mathematics for learning of other subjects of the National Curriculum, as well as in real-life situations.

The opportunities for developing this key skill are concentrated mainly in the school subject 'mathematics'.

The 'Information Technologies' is the key skill inclusive of the ability to use a set of information sources and tools to find, analyze, interpret, evaluate and use a variety of information, the ability to critical judgments and making choice of IT technologies in order to obtain maximum results in evaluation of information, solving problems, or in the professional activities.

The ability to use information resources involves research skills, ability to make decisions, the ability of creative thinking, and the ability to do a review, modify and evaluate work with IT technologies [9].

The opportunities for developing this key skill are concentrated mostly in the subject "information technology", and in the use of IT technologies "throughout the complete curriculum".

The 'Cooperation with other individuals': the key skill of cooperation with other individuals/team work is the ability to cooperate during the discussion in a small group and in the class as a whole. Cooperating with other individuals the students

develop social skills, their awareness and comprehension of the needs of other people.

All school subjects are inclusive of the opportunities for cooperation and efficient collaboration of students in formal and informal settings, as well as for high appreciating the experience of others and considering what they think, say, and do.

“Improving own learning and behavior”: the key ability to attract students to reflecting and critical assessment of their work (the studied material), the ways to improve training and presentation of the results. Students should be able to identify learning objectives, to reflect on the process and move forward in learning, to analyze failures and problems in learning, and to plan ways to improve learning [6].

Conclusion

The analysis shows that the social competency holds the prominent position among the list of key/core competencies of elementary school pupils in Great Britain. In the English context it has been defined as "cooperation with other individuals/team work" and "communication". The fact that the communication skill is defined in the UK as a first step (stage) in implementation of key competencies in the learning process of elementary school, clearly shows the hierarchy of priorities in this area.

At the end of XX - beginning of XXI century the ‘problem of literacy’ acquired a new meaning, a new interpretation, and new global resolution strategies. In modern conditions, the international educational society views public literacy ‘in close connection to proliferation of civil rights, democracy and mutual understanding, as well as cultural development of an individual and community as a whole’ [5, p. 5-7].

Thus, the ideas, concepts and specific scientific statements regarding the competency-based approach to education, including the elementary school, is a powerful source of influence on teaching practice and pedagogic thought in the UK. They are an organic part of the theoretical basis for new approaches to pedagogic education, where social-cultural training of future educators gains momentum and becomes a top priority issue.

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EU STRATEGIES OF INTEGRATING ICT INTO INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING

Abstract

Education and learning are strongly linked with society and its evolution and knowledge. In the field of formal education, ICTs are increasingly deployed as tools to extend the learner's capacity to perceive, understand and communicate, as seen in the increase in online learning programs and the use of the computer as a learning support tool in the classroom. They can provide more flexible and effective ways for professional development for teachers, improve initial teacher training, and connect teachers to the global teacher community too. This paper analyses a variety of strategies ICT integration into initial teacher training. Based on the analysis of those strategies, it discusses new possibilities and challenges that ICT has brought to teacher training and professional development. It concludes with discussion of emerging research issues with respect to ICT integration into initial teacher training.

Introduction

We have seen a significant expansion of ICT (Information and Communications Technologies) in education, not only across economically developed countries, but also around the world [5, 6, 9, 13]. ICT advances, go beyond personal computing, facilitating collaboration and social interactions, thus enhancing social development and social computing [2, p. 436-439]. The latter is a new paradigm of social learning, networking, communication and technology development, which has become a hot topic attracting broad interest from various fields of enquiry, scientific disciplines and social theories [8, p. 336-350; 13, p. 5-12]. To use these tools effectively and efficiently, teachers need visions of the technologies' potential, opportunities to apply them, training and just-in-time support, and time to experiment. Only then teachers can be informed and confident in their use of new technologies [1]. They should also be committed to play a leading role in promoting other teachers' professional development in their own schools [5, p. 148-162]. In 2005, UNESCO launched the "Decade for Education for Sustainable Development", which aims to accelerate the implementation of a new vision in education where in this context, ICT has drawn an integral part to advancing ESD (Education for Sustainable Development) [10, p. 57-59] in two ways: first, by increasing access to educational materials about sustainability (e.g. via distance learning, educational networks and databases) and second, by helping to promote new ways of interacting in order to facilitate the learning called for in ESD, that emphasizes not just knowledge, but choices, values and actions [7, p. 7].

ICT is more than just another teaching tool [11, p. 14]. Its potential for improving the quality and standards of pupils' education and for supporting teachers, both in their everyday classroom role, for example by reducing the time occupied by the administration associated with it, and in their continuing training and development is significant. Advances in technology continuously arouse enthusiasm about the potential of new devices and connectivity for learning situations. The

current time is no exception: wireless networking, low-cost computers, the increasing capacity and flexibility of mobile, hand-held devices, for example, all raise hopes for reaching learners at low cost and with high-quality opportunities. The most rapidly-spreading ICTs are mobile telephones, and education has yet to tap into the potential offered by its reach and flexibility. New approaches to teaching and learning are called for with a corresponding change in the roles of all parties to the educational process. Easier access to global communication, including the Internet, the World Wide Web, and the widespread use of computers and interactive multimedia, means that:

- teaching and learning are less dependent on specific physical locations;
- the number of resources available to students outside the classroom is increasing dramatically; and
- the focus of control to initiate educational encounters has now passed to the learner on an 'any time - any place' basis [12, p. 5-6].

ICTs are not only an important addition to the curriculum content, but they have also added to the educational system a valuable set of new resources and didactical tools suitable to support the learning process. However, combining new technologies with effective pedagogy has become a daunting task for both initial teacher training and in-service training institutions.

This paper looks at progress of strategies in ICT integration in initial teacher training. Those strategies are organized into a matrix and elaborated with the collection of cases from leading international organizations such as UNESCO, EURYDICE, EUROSTAT etc. The paper concludes with a discussion of policy emerging research issues involved in ICT applications in teacher training. Methods employed in this study include desk analyses of various strategies of ICT teacher training cases and approaches published in selected articles or websites.

Discussion

This analysis of resources in ICT initial teacher training indicates that there are possibilities and challenges in adopting ICT in teacher training and professional development. Overall, governments, organizations and teacher training institutions seem to recognize the importance of integrating ICT in education and teacher training. In many cases, the national vision for ICT use in education has been integrated into teacher training. In the early 1980s, information technology and teacher education (ITTE) was part of the general fields of educational technology and educational computing, and scholarship on ITTE was dispersed throughout the 50 or so journals dealing with some aspect of those disciplines. Journals such as the *Journal of Research on Computing in Education*, *Computers in the Schools*, and *Educational Technology* all published occasional papers on ITTE. At about the same time, this growing number of ITTE professionals found that existing conferences such as the National Educational Computing Conference (NECC), the American Educational Research Association (AERA), and the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) no longer met their professional needs.

The International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) was the first organization to recognize the emerging needs of ITTE, establishing in 1983 a special interest group for teacher educators interested in the use of computers. That same year the special interest group published the *Journal of Computing in Teacher*

Education, the first refereed quarterly journal dedicated to scholarly research and professional practice in ITTE. Another indicator of the emergence of ITTE as a sub discipline is the pattern of reports from the congressional Office of Technology Assessment (OTA). The original OTA report on technology and education dealt with the entire field. It addressed problems and issues that surround efforts to increase the meaningful use of technology in schools. One area of that report dealt with teacher education. Even with the growing recognition of the need for work on ITTE, it is interesting to note that the 1200-page Handbook of Research for Educational Communications and Technology does not have a chapter on technology and teacher education, and the term teacher education does not appear in the index of the book [14, p. 29-45].

The new vision of education highlights the need of effective learning and has shifted the emphasis of various elements involved in the education process. The international community that pursues progress towards achievement of the Education for All (EFA) goals, UNESCO believes the time has come to be more forceful in use of technologies for these ends [12, p. 6-7]. This entails activities to strengthen national capacities and the professional skills of individuals, to create new content for education. ICT applications in education should help meet the challenges of knowledge societies, contribute to the reduction of the digital divide, including disparities in access to knowledge, and provide opportunities for attaining quality education and lifelong learning for all [12, p. 7].

Qualified and trained teachers represent the key to quality teaching and learner motivation. However, in many countries professional expertise is limited and thinly distributed, particularly for the provision of non-formal literacy education. While ICT cannot be substitutes for teachers, ICT can supplement and support teachers by reducing their workload and enhancing their lessons [11, p. 15-24]. Organization such as The Eurydice Network has been closely following the ICT issue for several years, publishing data that provide greater insight into how education systems are taking account of this new situation. Eurydice Survey on this subject was published in September 2001 and described a better understanding of the nature and scope of national initiatives in this area.

In the light of the changes were observed in 1998-2001, it may be concluded that effort had been invested in this area with the very widespread incorporation of ICT into school curricula and initial teacher training. In over half of the European countries, training in ICT is compulsory for all future teachers whether they are intending to work in primary education, lower secondary education or upper secondary education. In some countries, institutions are totally free to devise and structure their course of training as they wish. Depending on the institution concerned, therefore, training in ICT may be a compulsory subject, a core curriculum option or an optional subject. This applies to the initial training of teachers for different levels of education in Ireland, Portugal until 2001/02, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and Romania. In Spain and in the United Kingdom (Wales and Northern Ireland), all those intending to teach at primary level receive training in ICT.

On the other hand, corresponding provision for future secondary school teachers depends on the institution at which they undertake their initial training. In the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, training in ICT is

compulsory for all those intending to teach at primary and lower secondary levels whereas, until the start of the 2001/02 school year, training institutions themselves decided whether to train future teachers in upper secondary education. In Slovakia, initial training of secondary school teachers has to include ICT-related training, whereas the inclusion of ICT in the initial training of primary school teachers depends on the institution they attend. In a few countries, training in the teaching of ICT is one of the core curriculum options. The training institutions concerned are thus obliged to offer the subject, but it is left to the trainees to decide whether or not to include it in their overall course of training. In Germany and in Italy, this applies to the initial training of all primary and secondary school teachers whereas, in Liechtenstein and in Bulgaria the same formula is limited to the training of secondary school teachers and, in Austria, solely to those intending to work at upper secondary level. In Greece, only teachers in primary education currently receive compulsory training in the teaching of ICT. At secondary level, this training is not provided [3, p. 19-48]. In the seventh edition "Key Data on Education in Europe" appears that in primary education, the compulsory subjects specified in official curricula are the same in all countries. The main differences at this level relate to flexible timetables and the obligation to provide ICT instruction and religious or moral instruction. In countries in which religious or moral instruction is a compulsory subject, the share of total taught time earmarked for it generally varies between 4 % and 8 %.

Finally, elements of information and communication technology (ICT) are often included in compulsory studies. ICT is very rarely taught as a subject in its own right during primary education, but tends to be used as a resource for working on other subjects. Case study: Slovakia where ICT is being taught from the first year of primary school from 2007/08. Study time in compulsory secondary education remains totally flexible in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom and is almost entirely so in the Flemish Community of Belgium. Spain exhibits a similar situation in primary and secondary education, while the proportion of flexible timetables plummets from 47 % (primary) to 6 % (secondary) in Poland. Furthermore, in the majority of countries, pupils in compulsory general secondary education are free to choose their subjects up to a point, as 'core curriculum options' enable them to select certain subjects from a predetermined list. Information and communication technology (ICT) is taught as a subject in its own right in almost half of all countries, but accounts for a very small proportion of taught time. Very often, ICT is included in other subjects or taught as part of technology studies (Spain, France, Italy, Slovenia and Finland) [4, p. 150-190].

In addition, such projects as a European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning (EQF) and the Education for All (EFA) in several developing countries is being implemented with close relationship with each country's government to integrate its activities into the nation's educational vision and policies.

Conclusion

A number of strategic actions are proposed in materials of international organizations mentioned above that could help teachers move from perspective and occasional ICT users to engaged and innovative users are:

1. Capacity building on ICT-enabled ESD based on blended models of training which would start with the training of a number of well-motivated ICT/ESD-literate teachers to function as resources in their own school and district.

2. Connect ESD capacity building to educational reform and change, giving due emphasis to the process as well as the substance of change.

3. Revise traditional teaching method and practices.

4. Governmental and administrative support: if teachers trained to integrate sustainable development and ICT in teaching and learning is to be effective, then responsible authorities should provide teachers pursuing training in this area with all the facilities and provide ESD innovative teachers' schools with extra computers and software [4, 6, 12].

ICT teacher training efforts made by organizations have shown training advantages of international collaborations and benefits of using ICT for teacher training. Furthermore, more attention should be paid to specific roles of ICT in offering multimedia simulations of good teaching practices, delivering individualized training courses, helping overcome teachers' isolation, connecting individual teachers to a larger teaching community on a continuous basis, and promoting teacher-to-teacher collaboration. Intended outcomes as well as unintended results of using ICT for teacher professional development need to be explored [4, 6, 12].

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ЕВГЕНИЙ АНАТОЛЬЕВИЧ АЛИСОВ / EVGENII ALISOV

КАНАЛЫ СОЦИАЛИЗАЦИИ ЛИЧНОСТИ НА СОВРЕМЕННОМ ЭТАПЕ РАЗВИТИЯ РОССИЙСКОГО ОБЩЕСТВА

SOCIALISATION CHANNELS OF THE PERSONALITY AT THE PRESENT DEVELOPMENT STAGE OF THE RUSSIAN SOCIETY

Аннотация / Abstract

Каналы социализации – это пути протекания процесса социализации, определяющие его индивидуальные, специфические характеристики, ввиду отличительных особенностей агентов, условий и направлений социального становления и развития личности. По типологии каналы социализации могут подразделяться на традиционные, официально-институциональные, субкультурные, виртуальные и др. На современном этапе развития российского общества исследователи выделяют три группы проблем социализации детей и молодежи, влияющие на модификацию и трансформацию основных каналов социализации личности: социально-психологические, естественно-культурные и социально-культурные.

Channels of socialization are socialization development ways, defining its individual, specific characteristics, in view of distinctive features of agents, conditions and directions of social formation and development of the personality. On typology channels of socialization can be subdivided into traditional, official and institutional, subcultural, virtual etc. At the present stage of development of the Russian society researchers allocate three groups of problems of socialization of children and youth influencing modification and transformation of the main channels of socialization of the personality: the social and psychological, natural and cultural, social and cultural.

В описании сущности процесса социализации используется устоявшийся терминологический аппарат, в который входят такие понятия, как «социализация», «факторы социализации», «условия социализации», «механизмы социализации», «институты социализации», «агенты социализации» и др. Менее употребительным и реже встречаемым термином, в контексте рассмотрения процесса социализации, является термин «каналы социализации». Между тем, по своему лексическому значению, он может претендовать на обозначение важного смыслозначимого терминологического локуса. Мы предлагаем следующее определение: «Каналы социализации – это пути протекания процесса социализации, определяющие его индивидуальные, специфические характеристики, ввиду отличительных особенностей агентов, условий и направлений социального становления и развития личности». Таким образом, «каналы социализации» могут трактоваться в соответствии с формулой: «Агенты социализации + условия социализации + направление социализации = каналы социализации». В отношении существительного «процесс» употребительным является глагол «протекает», в литературных

источниках встречается словосочетание «социализация протекает», поэтому термин «каналы социализации» претендует на то, чтобы гармонично занять свою терминологическую нишу в тезаурусе.

Как показывает проведенный анализ, значение понятия «каналы социализации» близко значению понятия «механизмы социализации», однако, имеет свои отличительные особенности, т.к. включает не факторы, а условия социального становления и развития личности, кроме того, направление протекания рассматриваемого процесса. Основные направления социализации соответствуют ключевым сферам жизнедеятельности человека: поведенческой, эмоционально-чувственной, познавательной, бытийной, морально-нравственной, межличностной. В ходе социализации по тому или иному каналу каждая из этих сфер жизнедеятельности характеризуется определенным вектором развития.

Понятие «каналы социализации» характеризуется выраженным комплексным характером, потому что отражает одновременно несколько принципиальных характеристик процесса, оно может быть призвано вскрыть специфику социализации, в зависимости от тех или иных признаков.

Близость терминологических значений понятий механизмов и каналов социализации позволяет выстроить «лексические параллели» в их типологии. Возможно выделение множества каналов социализации, что связано с тем, что личность может пойти по разным путям своего социального становления, поэтому любая из предлагаемых типологий рискует быть неполной. Осуществим попытку обозначения основных актуальных каналов социализации. Говорить об актуальных в то или иное время каналах социализации позволительно, ввиду того что понятие подразумевает условия (а не факторы) социализации, а значит, является динамической системой, реагирующей на изменяющиеся обстоятельства социальной действительности (тем самым обосновывается проблема данной коллективной работы). До недавнего времени педагоги и психологи изучали процессы социализации, индивидуального развития и становления подрастающей личности так, будто они (эти процессы) совершались в неизменном социальном мире, тогда как историки, социологи, этнографы, политики исследовали изменения в социуме без учета сдвигов в содержании и структуре жизненного пути индивида.

Сегодня такой подход является неудовлетворительным: если даже предположить, что психофизиологические и социально-психологические особенности современных подростков сохранились, что является сомнительным в связи с явлениями акселерации, инфантилизма, маргинальности, экологических катаклизмов, национальным возрождением и т.п., то их реальное высокосодежательное наполнение в современных условиях перехода к новым экономическим отношениям остается пока открытым.

К группе традиционных каналов социализации следует отнести семью, окружающую личность социокультурную среду, религиозный канал социализации. Агентами социализации в традиционных каналах выступают самые близкие и важные для человека люди. Прежде всего, это родители. В большинстве семей ключевое значение в успешной социализации ребенка имеет мать. В окружающей личность социокультурной среде агентами

социализации становятся субъекты культуры, которые ее продуцируют и благодаря ей существуют (выдающиеся личности, социальные группы, общество). В религии агентом социализации может стать священник, уважаемый прихожанин, идеальным вариантом является духовник.

Традиционные каналы социализации оказываются особо подверженными тенденциям модификации в условиях транзитивности (переходности). В такие периоды идет переоценка ценностей в обществе, приводящая, зачастую, к деформации представлений об идеалах семейного уклада, значении культурных артефактов, церковных истинах.

Векторы развития ключевых сфер жизнедеятельности личности, определяющие направления процесса социализации, протекающего по традиционным каналам, отличаются выраженной ориентацией на устоявшуюся систему ценностей; принятые в том или ином социальном окружении паттерны поведения; возможность проявления искренних чувств и эмоций; усвоение стереотипного набора знаний, умений и навыков; сохранение традиций и уклада жизни в обществе; определение статуса и иерархической значимости близких людей и др.

В качестве официально-институциональных каналов социализации выступают общественные структуры, имеющие влияние на утверждение определенной совокупности норм и правил жизнедеятельности в социуме и задающие ориентиры общественно приемлемого развития индивида. Эти общественные структуры могут выполнять социализирующую функцию как сопутствующую их основному предназначению. На фоне изменений, происходящих в современном российском обществе, в качестве официально-институциональных каналов социализации особо актуализируются рынок труда, институт предпринимательства, разного рода социальные организации и движения. Так, в частности, непрерывному изменению и развитию оказываются подвержены социальные движения – разновидность социальных процессов, представляющих собой деятельность людей, принадлежащих к различным социальным группам. В эпоху перемен актуализируется деятельность реформаторских движений (отдельный тип социальных движений) как официально-институционального канала социализации. Реформаторские движения направлены на изменение не всего общества, а его отдельных сторон. Эти движения характерны для обществ с высоким уровнем развития демократии. Люди высказывают свое мнение по поводу принятия того или иного закона, выступают за реформирование определенной сферы общественной жизни, все это имеет выраженное воздействие на процесс социализации.

В процессе взаимодействия человека с различными институтами и организациями происходит нарастающее накопление им соответствующих знаний и опыта социально одобряемого поведения, а также опыта имитации социально одобряемого поведения и конфликтного или бесконфликтного избегания выполнения социальных норм.

Векторы развития ключевых сфер жизнедеятельности личности, задающие направления процесса социализации, протекающего по официально-институциональным каналам, определяются тем, что и сегодня, по мнению многих ученых, Россия представляет собой общество-трансформер, которое

характеризуется такими чертами, как социальная энтропия, т.е. тотальная диссолидация общества и неспособность к реализации общенациональных интересов; суррогатная идеология, т.е. перманентный кризис идентичности и неспособность сохранить свои базовые ценности. Для современного общества проблема социальной нормы и социального отклонения является имманентной, масштабной и многоплановой. Она по-разному проявляется в различных социальных институтах, в разных условиях. В научном плане проблема социализации по официально-институциональным каналам носит комплексный междисциплинарный характер. Современные социальные институты существенно отличаются друг от друга по степени регламентации исполнения предписанных социальных ролей и уровня юрисдикции социальных санкций.

Субкультурные каналы отличаются особой системой ценностей, используемым языком, манерой поведения, одеждой и другими аспектами субъектов социализации. Различают субкультуры, формирующиеся на национальной, демографической, профессиональной, географической и других основах. В качестве представленности субкультуры в социальном пространстве выступает задаваемый ею стиль жизни.

Современная субкультурная среда характеризуется возрастанием меры человеческой субъектности, что проявляется в стремлении занять доминирующую позицию в отношении тех или иных социальных событий. Статусно значимого места в социальном мире человек достигает в результате индивидуальной активности, субъектности, автономности, инновационности. Все обозначенные черты потенциально присущи субкультурным каналам социализации.

Векторы развития ключевых сфер жизнедеятельности личности, определяющие направления процесса социализации, протекающего по субкультурным каналам, проявляются в общности стиля жизни, поведения, групповых норм, ценностей и стереотипов представителей субкультуры. Их определяющей характеристикой в современной России является феномен субъективной «размытости», неопределенности, отчуждения от основных нормативных ценностей (ценностей большинства). У многих подростков отсутствует четко выраженная личностная самоидентификация, сильны поведенческие стереотипы, обуславливающие деперсонализацию установок. Позиция отчуждения в его экзистенциональном преломлении просматривается как в отношении к социуму, так и в межгенерационном общении, в контркультурной направленности молодежного досуга.

Социальное отчуждение проявляется чаще всего в апатии, безразличии к политической жизни общества, в позиции «стороннего наблюдателя». На уровне самоидентификации проявление каких-либо определенных политических установок минимально. Вместе с тем эмоциональность, легковёрность и психологическая неустойчивость молодых людей может умело использоваться политическими элитами в борьбе за власть.

К числу актуальных каналов социализации личности в последнее время следует отнести также виртуальные каналы социализации. Наиболее показательны эти каналы характеризует термин «киберсоциализация», предложенный В. А. Плешаковым [2], под которой понимается социализация

личности в киберпространстве – процесс качественных изменений структуры самосознания личности, а также мотивационно-потребностной сферы индивидуума, происходящий под влиянием и в результате использования человеком современных информационно-коммуникационных, компьютерных и цифровых технологий в контексте усвоения и воспроизводства им культуры в рамках персональной жизнедеятельности.

Смысл киберсоциализации состоит в том, что человек меняется в процессе использования новой техники и современных технологий. У человека меняется отношение к миру, к другим людям, к себе. Меняются интересы, трансформируются мотивы деятельности, сознание. Современные информационные технологии изменили не только характер работы человека, его социальные связи, природу социальных коммуникаций, и самих социальных отношений, они трансформировали организационные формы социального взаимодействия, существенно преобразовали систему социального контроля и влияния, внесли новые элементы в институциональную систему. Современный подросток мегаполиса, крупного населенного пункта, а сейчас уже и малого города, чтобы считаться успешным, практически обязан быть всегда «онлайн»: с включенным круглосуточно сотовым (мобильным) телефоном, настроенной на мгновенное оповещение о новом письме электронной почтой (e-mail), онлайн в программах-клиентах для мгновенного обмена сообщениями (ICQ, Odisio или других интернет-пейджерах) и нескольких социальных сетях интернет-среды (например, популярных для России «ВКонтакте» и «Одноклассники») и т.д.

Обозначением традиционных, официально-институциональных, субкультурных, виртуальных групп каналов социализации не исчерпывается их типология. Кроме того, учитывая свойственную процессу социализации стихийность, а также динамичность и перманентность отдельных характеристик российской социальной действительности, важно иметь в виду каналы, не относящиеся однозначно к какому-либо из обозначенных типов.

На современном этапе развития российского общества исследователи выделяют три группы проблем социализации детей и молодежи: социально-психологические, естественно-культурные и социально-культурные. Социально-психологические проблемы связаны со становлением самосознания молодых людей, их самоопределением, самоактуализацией, самоутверждением и саморазвитием. Наблюдается тенденция к подмене у молодежи норм ценности высокой культуры усредненными образцами массовой потребительской культуры, переориентации молодежи от коллективистских духовных ценностей к корыстно-индивидуальным ценностям. Это, а также отсутствие четко сформулированной национальной идеи и объединяющей идеологии, стратегии развития, консолидирующей общество, недостаточное внимание к культурному развитию населения, противоречивость государственной молодежной политики закономерно приводит к крайне негативным последствиям.

На фоне мировоззренческой неопределенности молодежи (отсутствия у нее мировоззренческих основ смыслоориентации и социально-культурной идентификации), коммерциализации и негативного влияния СМИ (формирующих «образ» субкультуры), непрекращающейся духовной агрессии

Запада и экспансии массовой коммерческой культуры, насаждения стандартов и психологии общества потребления, происходит примитивизация смысла человеческого бытия, нравственная деградация личности и снижение ценности человеческой жизни. Идет размывание ценностных основ и традиционных форм общественной морали, ослабление и разрушение механизмов культурной преемственности, снижение интереса молодежи к отечественной культуре, ее истории, традициям, к носителям национального самосознания.

По мнению Г. В. Акопова, динамика событий, скорость технических, экономических, социальных, организационных изменений становится столь высокой, что впору говорить о «динамическом стрессе» или стрессе непреодолимого отставания в быстро изменяющейся жизни. В то же время психологи сейчас недостаточно уделяют внимания проблемам глобализации, а уже можно выделить биологический, политологический, психологический аспекты этого явления. Г. В. Акоповым была выдвинута гипотеза глобально-динамического и социально-личностного баланса, отмечен ряд особенностей в образе жизни современного человека (информатизация, современные технологии, универсализация и др.), которые в свою очередь отражаются на специфике психики людей. На смену целостной личности приходит «консолидированная» личность. Из-за неимоверно возросших возможностей вмешательства человека в физические, биологические и социальные процессы происходит все большая психологизация индивида. Р. М. Шамионов поднимает проблему внутренней детерминации процесса самоопределения молодежи. Особую роль он придает субъектным характеристикам личности, подчеркивая важность средств ее самоуправления, саморегуляции. На основании результатов эмпирических исследований, Р. М. Шамионов доказывает, что личностная детерминация самоопределения возможна в разных вариантах и в разной степени, благодаря чему она способна компенсировать слабую выраженность тех или иных его характеристик, включая и коррекцию внешних условий, создавая благоприятную среду для самореализации.

Естественно-культурные проблемы связаны с достижением субъектом определенного уровня физического и сексуального развития. На каждом возрастном этапе человеку необходимо: достичь определенной степени познания телесного канона, свойственного той культуре, в которой он живет; усвоить элементы этикета, символики, кинесического языка (жесты, позы, мимика, пантомимика), связанные с телом и полоролевым поведением; развить и (или) реализовать физические и сексуальные задатки; вести здоровый образ жизни, адекватный полу и возрасту (гигиена, режим, питание, способы сохранения здоровья и оздоровления организма, физического саморазвития, управления своим психофизическим состоянием); перестраивать самоотношение к жизни, стиль жизни в соответствии с половозрастными и индивидуальными возможностями. Все это имеет некоторые объективные и нормативные различия в тех или иных регионально-культурных условиях (различные темпы полового созревания, эталоны мужественности и женственности в различных этносах, регионах, возрастных и социальных группах и т.д.).

Социально-культурные проблемы социализации имеют своим содержанием приобщение личности к определенному уровню культуры, к той или иной совокупности знаний, умений и навыков. Социально-культурные проблемы, как пишут А. П. Марков и Г. М. Бирженюк [1], характеризуют неблагоприятное состояние тех или иных составляющих среды или образа жизни и возникают как субъективно воспринимаемое несоответствие между оптимальным уровнем культурного развития и его реальным состоянием. Острота переживания ситуации культурно обусловлена, она задается представлением о норме, эталоне и является результатом восприятия и оценки культурной ситуации субъектом, который принимает на себя ответственность за данное состояние и доступными ему способами пытается оптимизировать культурную жизнь личности, социальной группы, самодеятельной общности, территории в целом. Социально-культурные проблемы, носителями которых являются сегодняшние подростки, связаны со снижением моральных критериев во взаимоотношениях; неразвитой способностью к состраданию, сопереживанию, эмпатии; девальвацией ценности образования, труда; отсутствием интереса к культурному наследию, истории своего края; разрушением духовно-нравственной атмосферы в семье; ростом криминальной активности и отклоняющихся форм поведения и др.

В сегодняшней ситуации действие целого ряда факторов придает этим проблемам особую остроту. В частности, резко изменилась ситуация в сфере семейного воспитания: отмирает старая система патриархальной семьи с ее многодетностью, объективной необходимостью раннего включения в дела семьи, труд, неформальным соседским контролем, преемственностью экономического, социального, профессионального статуса из поколения в поколение, патриархальным авторитетом деда и отца, монополией семьи (вместе со школой) на передачу информации. Увеличивается число неполных семей, а также семей, в которых действуют источники криминогенного влияния на детей. На общем уровне духовности подростков отрицательно сказывается потребительски-престижное воспитание, ориентирующее детей на добывание вещей как самоцель, способ самоутверждения, идеологическая сумятица старших.

В сфере учебной деятельности все более заметными становятся «ножницы» между естественным признанием учебы в качестве ведущей деятельности и фактическим отношением к школе детей и подростков. Значительная часть педагогов профессионально непригодна к воспитательной работе. Нет ресурсных предпосылок для дифференциации и индивидуализации обучения. Отсутствуют возможности реального контроля за педагогической деятельностью и ее результатами со стороны общественного мнения родителей.

Таким образом, проблема актуальных каналов социализации личности в последнее время приобретает особое значение, ввиду влияния целого ряда факторов окружающей российской действительности, и требует специального изучения. В качестве одного из официально-институциональных каналов социализации, претерпевающих модификацию, выступает современная образовательная среда. Пристальное внимание со стороны педагогов должно быть уделено, в частности, вопросам духовно-нравственного воспитания в

образовательном пространстве школы, города; формированию межнациональных отношений в современной социальной среде мегаполиса; инновационным авторским программам, проектам, направленным на оптимизацию функционирования каналов социализации. Модификация каналов социализации личности во многом зависит от характеристик смыслоопределяющего пространства субъекта в социальной среде образовательного учреждения. Использование интерактивных методов педагогического сопровождения может повлиять на виртуальные каналы социализации личности. Субкультурные каналы социализации также бурно и активно реагируют на малейшие изменения в молодежной социальной среде.

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ИСАЕВА / ELENA ZHINDEEVA, ELENA ISAEVA**

ПЕРСПЕКТИВЫ ВНЕДРЕНИЯ КОМПЕТЕНТНОСТНОГО ПОДХОДА В СИСТЕМУ ЛИТЕРАТУРОВЕДЧЕСКОЙ ПОДГОТОВКИ В ОБУЧЕНИИ УЧИТЕЛЕЙ-СЛОВЕСНИКОВ¹

PERSPECTIVES OF COMPETENCE APPROACH INTRODUCTION INTO THE SYSTEM OF PHILOLOGICAL TRAINING OF LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE TEACHERS

Аннотация / Abstract

Предложены размышления по поводу внедрения компетентностного подхода в систему литературоведческой подготовки учителей русского языка и литературы с опорой не только на качество преподавательской деятельности обучающего, но и на потенциал профессионального саморазвития обучающегося.

Thoughts on the introduction of competence approach into philological training of teachers of the Russian language and literature are offered with the emphasis not only on the quality of teacher's training, but also on the potential of professional self-development of the student.

Одной из составляющей современного процесса обучения стало введение компетентностного подхода в процесс подготовки специалистов разного уровня. На государственном уровне сегодня уже разработана система программных мероприятий, нормативно закрепляющих процесс перехода к компетентностно ориентированному обучению, где ведущую роль играют не только знания, получаемые в период обучения, но и навыки их использования, потенциальные умения, которые в той или иной степени прошедший курс обучения способен применить на практике.

Несмотря на введение необходимых составляющих в обучение в связи с внедрением компетентностного подхода, остается комплекс дискуссионных вопросов относительно его организационно-методической и нормативно-правовой обеспеченности, ресурсной базы внедрения, под которой мы понимаем финансово-экономическое, материально-техническое, кадровое обеспечение. Это касается, в том числе и филологического образования.

Ориентация отечественного образования на западные парадигмы, смещение акцентов в подготовке учителей-словесников в пользу образования

¹ Работа издана при финансовой поддержке Министерства образования и науки РФ в рамках проекта 2.1.2 «Решение комплексных проблем формирования профессиональной компетенции педагога и психолога в системе непрерывного образования» мероприятие 2.1 «Развитие фундаментальных, прикладных исследований ИОКР по гуманитарным направлениям науки и образования. Программа стратегического развития МордГПИ на 2012-2016 гг.».

человека в его узкопрактической подготовке имеет, на наш взгляд, как ряд положительных, так и ряд отрицательных моментов. Обозначим некоторые.

Современное профессиональное обучение будущих учителей-словесников построено на совершенствовании от курса к курсу собственно-профессиональных или специальных, соответствующих конкретной специальности компетенций. При этом их набор вариативен и зависит, в том числе и от предлагаемого для изучения материала. Среди задач профессионального филологического обучения центральное место занимает формирование и дальнейшее совершенствование специальных компетенций, которые позволят обучающимся овладеть навыками профессии и адекватно себя в ней чувствовать.

Стремясь к терминологической точности, разграничим понятия «компетентность» и «компетенции». «Компетентность - интегральное качество личности, характеризующее готовность человека к эффективной реализации той или иной социальной роли (профессионала, члена общества, гражданина и т. д.)» [1, с. 16]. «Компетенция - результат образования, выражающийся в готовности человека к решению определенных задач профессиональной и внепрофессиональной деятельности на основе использования им внутренних и внешних ресурсов» [1, с. 17]. В таком случае профессиональная компетентность как личный багаж педагога, заключающийся в адекватном применении полученных знаний, умений и навыков в той или иной области профессиональной деятельности, так и совокупность личностных качеств, создают имидж педагога.

Формулируя базовые требования, ФГОС не предусматривает (и не может предусматривать) перечень специальных компетенций, поскольку в соответствии с официальными рекомендациями этот перечень разрабатывается вузом исключительно самостоятельно с учетом направленности (профиля) основной образовательной программы [2]. Вместе с тем, часть специальных компетенций (СК) будущего бакалавра-педагога, имеющих выраженный инвариантный характер, мы все-таки можем сформулировать: владеет методами применения ИТ в предметной (профильной) области своей деятельности (СК-1); способен разрабатывать авторские методические материалы по своему учебному предмету, апробировать и внедрять их в учебно-воспитательный процесс (СК-2); знает и умеет использовать технические средства и информационные технологии в методической системе обучения учащихся конкретному предмету (СК-3); умеет разрабатывать и применять электронные дидактические и педагогические программные средства в конкретной сфере своей деятельности (СК-4). В таком случае речь идет об эффективном профессиональном саморазвитии. Однако такой набор профессиональных качеств не предусматривает специфики преподаваемого предмета. И если учесть, что перечень СК может быть видоизменен, скажем следующим образом, способен интерпретировать произведения фольклора как феномен национально-духовной культуры народа (СК-1); готов к анализу мирового литературного процесса в контексте истории и культуры и с учетом основных методологических направлений (СК-2); готов к филологической интерпретации и анализу литературных произведений в контексте культуры и

социально-исторического опыта, с учетом эволюции художественного сознания и специфики творческого процесса (СК-3); владеет знаниями об истории и принципах литературной критики (СК-4); готов к лингвистическому анализу текстов с учетом знаний об уровневой системе русского языка и ее единицах в единстве их содержания, формы и функции (СК-6), то такой вариант фактически оставляет без внимания довольно важные компоненты подготовки, перечисленные выше. А поскольку основой филологического образования является текст, а главной деятельностью специалиста-филолога, соответственно, – работа с текстом, и именно литературоведческая и лингвистическая компетенции в их органическом единстве непосредственно связаны с текстом, его изучением.

Мы понимаем, что ключевым принципом обучения, основанного на компетенциях, является ориентация на результаты, значимые для сферы применения. Таким образом, для учителя литературы на первый план выдвигается именно литературоведческая подготовка, для учителя русского языка соответственно лингвистическая подготовка. Вследствие этого учитель-словесник в привычной на сегодняшний день практике средней школы перестанет существовать, уступив место предметнику, что мы не считаем позитивными изменениями для школьной практики преподавания обоих предметов.

Рассматривая вопрос внедрения компетентного подхода, необходимо принять во внимание и то, что удельный вес самостоятельной работы обучающихся значительно повышен, а контролирующая ее часть остается вне зоны влияния преподавателя, что не может не повлиять на качество самоподготовки.

Поскольку ключевым условием для совершенствования текстовых и литературоведческих компетенций, исходя из вышесказанного, является обращение в обучение студентов-филологов к филологическому анализу образцов литературного творчества, как системообразующей основы процесса развития текстовой компетенции, появляется необходимость в иллюстрации данной технологии известными примерами из опыта ведущих специалистов. К тому же это будет способствовать побуждению к выработке у будущего учителя литературы самостоятельной интерпретационной стратегии, которая может служить основой авторской методики, применяемой в процессе преподавания.

Таким образом, перспективы внедрения компетентного подхода в систему литературоведческой подготовки в обучении учителей-словесников связаны не только с качеством преподавательской деятельности обучающего, но с потенциал профессионального саморазвития обучающегося.

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ОРГАНИЗАЦИЯ СПЕЦИАЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ В НАЧАЛЬНОЙ ШКОЛЕ СТРАН ЕВРОПЕЙСКОГО СОЮЗА

ORGANISATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

Аннотация / Abstract

В статье рассматриваются тенденции развития специального образования в начальной школе стран Европейского Союза на рубеже XX-XXI ст. Анализируются модели интеграции учащихся с особыми образовательными потребностями, факторы, влияющие на результативность данного процесса.

The article examines trends in the development of special education in the primary school of the European Union at the turn of XX-XXI century. It analyzes the integration models for pupils with special educational needs, the factors affecting the results of the process.

Развитие школы как социального института всегда находится в рамках того или иного политического, экономического и культурно-исторического контекста. На рубеже XX-XXI ст. процессы реформирования и модернизации школьного образования в Европе приобретают широкомасштабный характер: пересматриваются цели образования, его содержание, вопросы управления и финансирования, система контроля качества образования и т. д. Изменения происходят на всех школьных уровнях, в том числе и на начальном, которому уделяется особое государственное и общественное внимание: начальная школа перестает быть только школой знаний – она становится местом, где дети учатся использовать свои способности и возможности для собственного развития и во благо других.

Такая философская концепция в корне меняет задачи современной начальной школы и одновременно вызывает противоречие. Больше, чем когда-либо, родители ожидают, что школа вооружит детей знаниями и навыками, которые им понадобятся в обществе. Больше, чем раньше, родители заинтересованы в учебном прогрессе детей и судят о качестве работы школы по успеваемости. В то же время сегодняшний ученик начальной школы рассчитывает на уважение его индивидуальности и принятие во внимание его образовательных интересов.

Показательными в этом плане являются проблемы образования детей с особыми потребностями. До тех пор, пока органы образования и школ формулируют свои цели и планируют деятельность с использованием стандартов и норм, всегда будет категория детей, которые не будут соответствовать этим стандартам. Они нуждаются в дополнительном медико-психолого-педагогическом сопровождении, а иногда и дополнительных условиях.

Все европейские страны признают интеграцию наиболее перспективной формой обучения детей с особыми образовательными потребностями, однако каждая из стран выбирает свой способ решения данной задачи. В поиске собственного пути находится сегодня и Украина. Успех в создании национальной системы индивидуализированного обучения детей с ограниченными возможностями здоровья может быть обеспечен при условии сохранения уникального наследия отечественной дефектологической науки и критического переноса и адаптации современных зарубежных моделей интеграции.

Существуют различные взгляды на определение понятия «интеграция» или «включенное образование». С одной стороны, интеграция рассматривается как расширение специального образования. Другая позиция понимает включение как комбинацию общего и специального образования, что может быть проблематичным в том смысле, что сохраняются медицинские контуры вопроса. В любом случае, основополагающим принципом инклюзивного образования является признание обществом ценности человеческого многообразия и бесценности вклада, который каждый человек может сделать в развитие этого общества.

Зарубежная практика обучения детей с ограниченными возможностями здоровья свидетельствует, что национальные системы специального образования на рубеже XX-XXI ст. ощутили необходимость принципиальной модернизации. Если Западная Европа вступила в этот процесс в конце 70-х годов 20 века, то страны Восточной Европы, в том числе и постсоветские государства, приступили к модернизации своих систем специального образования во второй половине 90-х годов.

Международные тенденции в политике, научных исследованиях и педагогической практике установили право учащихся с ограниченными возможностями получать образование в обычных школах. Декларация Саламанки (ЮНЕСКО, 1994), подписанная «Всемирной Конференцией по образованию лиц с особыми потребностями: доступ и качество», закрепила право всех детей, в том числе с инвалидностью, на школьное образование. Следующим шагом стала работа Всемирного форума по вопросам образования в Дакаре (ЮНЕСКО, 2000), скорректировавшего международные обязательства по образованию для всех детей в инклюзивной образовательной среде. Принятие Конвенции о правах инвалидов (ООН, 2006) обязало государства-участников, подписавших ее, предоставлять информацию о реализации политики интегрированного образования.

Как результат переосмысления данной проблемы сегодня можно наблюдать становление нового типа отношения государства и общества к инвалидам, к детям с ограниченными возможностями здоровья, к детям с особыми образовательными потребностями.

Подсчитано, что около 10-15% учащихся в начальной школе европейских стран относятся к данной категории [3, с. 97]. Точность этих оценок зависит от средней численности учащихся и от того, как нормативные документы определяют статус ребенка с особыми образовательными потребностями. Так Польша выделяет более 10 категорий учащихся с особыми образовательными потребностями, Дания – только две, в Лихтенштейне законодательная база

говорит лишь о категории учащихся, нуждающихся в сопровождении. В среднем страны ЕС выделяют 6-10 категорий учащихся с особыми образовательными потребностями [5, с. 8].

Сегодня в странах Европейского союза реализуются три модели интегрированного обучения детей в начальной школе [3, с. 98]:

- модель интеграции детей с особыми потребностями в общеобразовательную систему;
- модель сегрегации: дети с особыми потребностями получают образование в специальной школьной системе;
- модель гибкого сотрудничества между двумя образовательными системами: общим и специальным начальным образованием.

На выбор того или иного варианта оказывают влияние философские, социологические и педагогические факторы. Например, в то время как учителя требуют специальных условий и оборудования для обучения детей с тяжелыми умственными расстройствами, каких не может обеспечить обычная начальная школа, социологи могут утверждать, что все дети – по крайней мере, как можно больше – должны обучаться вместе в одной и той же школе.

Что же подразумевать под «интеграцией»? Во-первых, мы могли бы выделить организационный аспект, т. е. где осуществляется дополнительная поддержка детей. В педагогической практике начальной школы возможны следующие варианты для учащихся с особыми образовательными потребностями:

- а) общеобразовательная школа с дополнительной поддержкой в классе;
- б) общеобразовательная школа с дополнительной поддержкой в ресурсных классах;
- в) общеобразовательная школа со специальными классами или клиникой, где учащиеся получают образование временно или полный день;
- г) комбинация обучения: учащиеся с особыми потребностями проводят часть учебного времени (несколько часов, несколько дней) в специальной школе, остальное время они посещают обычную школу;
- д) специальная школа: временно (например, год) или в течение всего начального образования.

Но как только принимается решение, где будет оказываться дополнительная поддержка детей с особыми потребностями, возникает вопрос о содержании образования, самого учебного процесса. Может ли полная интеграция означать, что все дети получают одинаковое образование в одном и том же месте? Означает ли сегрегация, что дети обучаются по-разному и в разных местах?

Чтобы дать ответ на поставленные вопросы, следует четко разграничивать уровни интеграции, как это предлагает швейцарский педагог Коби. Действительно, *физическая* интеграция имеет место, когда все дети обучаются в одной школе (здании). *Терминологический и административный* уровни интеграции определяют категорию детей с особыми потребностями и их принадлежность к ученическому коллективу. Поэтому терминологическая и административная интеграции становятся реальностью, когда все учащиеся, независимо от потребностей, составляют единый коллектив школы (в школьных документах избегают употреблять термин «учащийся с особыми

потребностями»). *Социальная* интеграция открывает возможности для социальных контактов между всеми детьми. *Учебная* интеграция предполагает общую учебную программу для детей с особыми потребностями или без них. На этапе *психологической* интеграции школа и учителя не делают различий между учащимися: все дети «особые» [3, с. 101].

Идея интегрированного обучения, как показывает опыт европейских стран, получает наибольшее развитие там, где это происходит в контексте образовательной политики государства: примером могут служить результаты Англии и Испании, где создание системы интегрированного образования стало частью реформы, направленной на повышение эффективности системы образования в целом. Интеграция является необходимым условием, при котором становится возможной реализация целей образования для всех, что затрагивает интересы не только определенной группы лиц, но и всего общества. При этом обеспечение государством финансовой составляющей реформ и преобразований определяет успех интеграции.

Опыт стран, реализующих программы образования для всех, подтверждает тот факт, что процесс интеграции требует значительных материальных затрат. Если финансирование не осуществляется в достаточном объеме, то идея интеграции вряд ли может быть реализована на практике. Поэтому расхождения между основными положениями интеграционной политики и ее практической реализацией частично объясняются несовершенством механизмов финансирования.

В большинстве европейских стран ключевую роль в работе с интегрированными учащимися с особыми образовательными потребностями играют школьные учителя. Дополнительная образовательная поддержка обеспечивается силами профессионалов, преимущественно специальными педагогами, работу которых регулируют, как правило, местные органы управления образованием.

В Швеции с учениками специальных классов (школ) работают исключительно специальные педагоги. В Италии с такими учениками могут работать как специальные, так и обычные педагоги, причем те и другие в равной степени несут ответственность за обучение детей с особыми образовательными потребностями. Возможны и иные варианты. Например, во Франции помощь школьным учителям оказывает служба, подведомственная Министерству юстиции. В школах Люксембурга в классе, где есть интегрированные ученики, работают «ассистенты», которые не владеют школьной учебной программой, но имеют знания в области коррекционной педагогики и специальной психологии. В Ирландии социальные службы непосредственно не участвуют в предоставлении услуг учащимся с особыми образовательными потребностями. Региональные Советы по здравоохранению финансируют медицинские и социальные службы [2].

В общеобразовательной школе Дании ответственность за удовлетворение особых образовательных потребностей учащихся возложена на учителя. Определяет эти потребности психолого-педагогическая служба, которая в дальнейшем следит за развитием учащегося, вносит коррективы в программу его обучения. Вопрос о направлении ученика на специальное обучение находится в компетенции завуча. В случае интеграции ребенок может

рассчитывать на различные типы поддержки: специальное обучение в классе со специальным преподавателем; «групповое обучение» вне класса (если ученик нуждается в регулярной поддержке по одному или более предметам). Также ученик может получать помощь от специального педагога, сотрудничающего с классным учителем несколько часов в день. У учителя может быть ассистент, который будет сопровождать ученика во время перемен и внеурочных мероприятий. Учитель, специальный педагог и ассистент работают в тесном сотрудничестве.

В норвежской школе интеграция всех учащихся независимо от их функциональных особенностей является общим принципом, и как результат его практической реализации в значительной степени удалось включить учащихся с особыми потребностями в общеобразовательные классы. Но исследования показывают, что по-прежнему возникает много проблем, когда поднимается вопрос об инклюзии. Инклюзия предполагает построение моста между обычной и специальной педагогикой в форме адаптированного обучения, что подразумевает изменение самой школьной практики: школа должна ориентироваться на разнообразие учащихся и уникальность каждого, а не на некоего среднего ученика. В то же время необходимо учитывать, что некоторые учащиеся имеют серьезные и неустраняемые проблемы здоровья, и меры по удовлетворению их особых образовательных потребностей требуют особых усилий. Поэтому школы и учителя сталкиваются с целым рядом этических, профессиональных и организационных дилемм, связанных с инклюзией [1].

Одной из распространенных тенденций развития системы специального образования в Европе на современном этапе является преобразование специальных школ и институтов в ресурсные центры. Большинство стран сообщили, что они планируют развивать, разрабатывают или уже создали сеть ресурсных центров в своих странах. Такие центры могут иметь разные названия и разные задачи: в одних странах их называют центрами знаний, в других – экспертными или ресурсными центрами. Как правило, на них возложено решение следующих задач:

- организация подготовительных курсов и курсов повышения квалификации (переподготовки) для учителей и других специалистов;
- разработка и распространение информационных и методических материалов;
- консультация родителей, персонала общеобразовательных школ;
- периодическая помощь отдельным учащимся;
- поддержка учащихся при выходе на рынок труда.

Ресурсные центры, в зависимости от поставленных перед ними задач, могут функционировать как на национальном уровне, так и в регионах. Некоторые европейские страны уже имеют положительный опыт работы ресурсных центров, среди них, например, Австрия, Норвегия, Дания, Швеция, Финляндия, Кипр, Нидерланды, Германия, Греция, Португалия и Чехия активно внедряют данную систему. В Испании специальные школы обязаны сотрудничать с обычными школами по территориальному принципу, а в Бельгии, Нидерландах, Греции и Великобритании специальные школы

предоставляют консультации и другие услуги для общеобразовательных школ [5, с. 11].

Несмотря на изменения законодательной базы, активную позицию общественных организаций, изменение отношения к данной проблеме на государственном уровне, результативность и качество интеграции по-прежнему сильно зависят от целого ряда факторов, а часто и от их комбинации. Что касается *социологических* факторов, необходимо учитывать, что учащиеся с особыми образовательными потребностями часто относятся к особой социальной или этнической группе. Как следствие такой принадлежности учителя начальной школы отмечают поведенческие проблемы учащихся, задержки развития, плохое обучение и т.д. В планировании и организации учебного процесса для педагогов важно знание и понимание половых особенностей детей: среди учащихся с особыми образовательными потребностями больше мальчиков, чем девочек.

Технологические факторы, позволяющие интеграцию сделать реальностью, находятся в области современных технологических разработок, начиная, например, от новых слуховых аппаратов для детей с проблемами слуха и заканчивая неограниченными возможностями информационно-коммуникационных технологий. Хотя влияние ИКТ на качество образования до сих пор остается темой для обсуждения среди психологов и педагогов, вопрос о необходимости их применения в учебном процессе решен однозначно. Но практически все европейские страны столкнулись с проблемой кадрового обеспечения. Школам нужны специалисты с двойной квалификацией: ИКТ учитель и специальный педагог. В связи с этим внесены изменения в университетские программы подготовки учителей. А это уже группа *педагогических* факторов, которые, по мнению исследователей, в равной степени с экономическими (финансирование), определяют успех интеграции. Специалисты, принимающие новую систему ценностей (педагогический такт, толерантность, широта взглядов на образование), способны решить задачи личностного, эмоционального, творческого, социального развития ребенка.

Поддержание системы специального образования даже для стран с развитой экономикой и высоким уровнем жизни это значительная статья внутренних расходов, поэтому *экономические* факторы оказывают влияние на выбор государства: сохранять отдельную систему специального образования или подразумевать, что обычная школа справляется с потребностями особенных учащихся. Например, в Нидерландах расходы на ребенка в специальной школе для детей с легкими отклонениями в обучении и поведении приблизительно в четыре раза больше, чем на «нормального» учащегося начальной школы. Если сравнить стоимость обучения ребенка с тяжелыми физическими и умственными недостатками, посещающего школу для детей-инвалидов, с расходами на обучение ребенка обычной школы соотношение будет 20 к 1 [5, с. 102]. Одним из способов решения данной проблемы может стать перестройка традиционной системы финансирования образования детей с тяжелыми и множественными нарушениями. Процесс деинституционализации, главными особенностями которого являются рациональное расходование государственных средств и возможность не

отрывать ребенка от семьи, начался более 20 лет назад в США и в ряде развитых стран Европы. Положительный опыт деинституционализации специального образования дает возможность, во-первых, сохранить и развивать данную систему, а во-вторых, удовлетворять особые образовательные потребности учащихся с ограниченными возможностями в той мере, которая предусмотрена современными гуманистически ориентированными международными стандартами. Помимо экономического эффекта деинституционализации зарубежные специалисты предлагают перенос приоритетов финансирования на систему ранней помощи и дошкольное образование детей с проблемами в развитии: ранняя диагностика и своевременная помощь позволит многим детям влиться в систему общего образования, таким образом, меньшее число детей будет нуждаться в специальных школах.

Анализируя развитие специального образования в странах Западной Европы, можно говорить об отсутствии единых подходов и правил организации сопровождения и поддержки детей с особыми образовательными потребностями, интегрированными в общеобразовательные учреждения. Экономически развитые государства со сложившимся гражданским обществом и высоким уровнем жизни по-разному понимают и решают проблемы интеграции. Так поддержку ребенка с особыми образовательными потребностями в одних странах осуществляют штатные специалисты учебного заведения, принимающего интегрированного ученика, в других – специалисты извне. При этом масштаб и глубина поддержки зависят от потребностей конкретного ребенка. Ряд стран предусматривает оказание помощи интегрированному ученику как в классе, так и вне класса. В случаях реабилитации, лечения и пр. помощь может осуществляться и вне школы. Повсеместно прослеживается тенденция усиления информационной и методической поддержки и школьного учителя и родителей.

На данный момент государства и школы практикуют такие направления деятельности, как превентивные меры или ранняя интервенция, информационная поддержка, деинституционализации специального образования, дифференциация или адаптация учебной программы и процесса обучения к индивидуальным возможностям ученика, усовершенствование общеобразовательной школы под нужды интегрируемых в нее учеников, включая специальную подготовку учителей-предметников и разделение ответственности педагогов. Страны Западной Европы наметили основные направления развития специального образования: предоставление информации (общей и специфической), вовлечение в действие (общественные организации, школьные коллективы, родители), трансформация школьных систем (переход к единой образовательной системе с функциями сопровождения интегрированных детей, консультирования их родителей, педагогов массовых школ), расширение временных границ специального образования от первых месяцев и на протяжении всей жизни.

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ГУЛЬЗАДА АНУАРОВНА ХУСАИНОВА / GULZADA KHUSSAINOVA

**ФОРМИРОВАНИЕ ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНО-ИННОВАЦИОННОЙ
КРЕАТОСФЕРЫ БУДУЩИХ МАГИСТРОВ В СИСТЕМЕ
МУЗЫКАЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ КАЗАХСТАНА**

**FORMATION OF PROFESSIONALLY-INNOVATIVE CREATIVE SPHERE
OF FUTURE MASTER DEGREE STUDENTS IN THE KAZAKHSTAN
SYSTEM OF MUSICAL EDUCATION**

Аннотация / Abstract

Данная статья затрагивает актуальную проблему процесса формирования профессионально-инновационной креатосферы будущих магистров музыкального образования. Изложена характеристика профессионально-содержательных аспектов процесса подготовки будущих магистров музыкального образования в Казахстане, ориентированной на формирование у них инновационно-креативных способов мышления.

This article mentions the actual problem of the forming of professionally innovative creative sphere of future Master degree musical students. The characteristic of the professional and intentional aspects of the future Master degree musical students training in Kazakhstan oriented at the formation of their innovative and creative ways of thinking is stated in this article.

Казахстанский приоритет постиндустриально-инновационного развития страны, предполагает наличие процесса модернизации во всех областях экономики, культуры и образования. Для решения данной задачи на сегодня актуальным становится наличие высококвалифицированных кадров, соответствующего уровня и профиля, конкурентоспособных на рынке труда, компетентных, свободно владеющих своей профессией, ориентированных в сложных областях деятельности, способных к эффективной работе по специальности на уровне международных стандартов, в том числе и в казахстанской системе подготовки магистров музыкального образования [2].

Современный процесс развития высшего образования подчинён триаде «образование – наука – инновации», с повышением роли труда в развитии личности и государства, усилением взаимосвязи социального и экономического развития, при этом актуализируется роль знаний как фактора профессиональной успешности, формируются новые ценностные ориентиры, базирующиеся на функциональной грамотности и компетентности [3].

Одна из концептуальных задач высшей музыкально-образовательной системы – научить будущего магистра-педагога нестандартно мыслить, творчески решать проблемы, владеть научными, профессиональными навыками, которые позволят адаптироваться без стрессов и потрясений к быстрым переменам в социальной, информационной, технологической и всей профессиональной среде, перестройка которой активно обеспечивается на сегодня в казахстанской системе музыкального образования.

Особое значение на нынешнем этапе придаётся целенаправленной ориентации на процесс формирования профессиональной креатосферы будущих магистров музыкального образования, ей подчинены все элементы учебного процесса, научно-исследовательская работа преподавателей, основывающаяся на данных зарубежных и казахстанских психолого-педагогических исследований во всей области музыкального образования, исследовавших феномен креатосферы как сферы полихудожественного взаимодействия личности обучающегося, культуры и общества на основе синергетики национальных культур.

Проблема качественного улучшения основных параметров казахстанской высшей музыкально-образовательной системы связана на сегодня со стратегией опережающего развития каждого обучающегося на протяжении всего периода обучения в магистратуре, а её приоритетная линия связана с развитием их личностной креатосферы в опоре на следующие общие условия:

- общедоступное образование через всю жизнь (систематическое повышение квалификации через процесс совершенствования личностного качества «самообучаемости»);
- наличия продуманной и организованной сферы, обеспечивающей здоровье через всю жизнь (оздоровление и спорт);
- обеспечения синергетики образования, науки, искусства, других сфер создания ценностей, идей, технологий и т.п., результатов и ресурсов в процессе приобретения избранной профессии;
- стремления к достижению занятости будущих специалистов в непрерывной музыкально-образовательной сфере на основе сотрудничества с работодателями [3].

К личностным качествам будущих магистров музыкального образования, которые обеспечат развитие их профессиональной креатосферы можно отнести:

- самостоятельное приобретение необходимых знаний и их умелое применение на практике;
- умение критически мыслить;
- способность гибко адаптироваться к профессиональным и жизненным ситуациям;
- способность аналитически мыслить;
- быть контактными в общении с магистрантами и преподавателями;
- трудиться над развитием профессионального интеллекта.

Качества личности будущих магистров связаны с формированием их интеллектуально-профессионального потенциала в процессе обучения.

Слово "магистр" – латинского происхождения и потому имеет древние корни. Оно означает "наставник", "учитель", "руководитель". В русском переводе слово "магистр" обозначает "мастер своего дела". От этого слова образован, например, музыковедческий термин "маэстро", что значит большой мастер, признанный специалист в области музыки.

На сегодня в казахстанской трехуровневой системе высшего образования магистр – это широко эрудированный специалист, владеющий методологией научного творчества, современными информационными технологиями, подготовленный к исследовательской, консультационной, аналитической

деятельности. Данная структура высшего образования преследует цель – расширить возможности вузов в удовлетворении многообразных культурно-образовательных запросов личности, повышении научно-профессиональной подготовки специалистов с учетом потребностей экономики и рынка труда [2].

Со стороны специалистов, работающих в системе высшего образования Казахстана проявляется особый интерес к идее введения системы подготовки по направлениям высшего образования с ее многоуровневой структурой. Две первых ступени имеют различные по целям задачи. Бакалавриат призван обеспечивать получение студентами фундаментального образования в достаточно широкой области знаний в сочетании с базовыми сведениями из других научных областей и элементами начальной профессионализации, а магистратура – развитие на этой основе системы углубленной специализированной подготовки кадров для научно-исследовательской и педагогической деятельности на базе имеющихся научно-педагогических школ. Такой подход предусматривает также понимание бакалавриата и магистратуры как двух составных частей единой двухуровневой системы подготовки по музыкально-образовательному направлению.

В своей деятельности по разворачиванию магистратуры, профессорско-преподавательский коллектив Казахского национального университета искусств, в составе которого работает автор статьи, руководствуется ГОСО РК «Послевузовское образование. Магистратура. Основные положения ГОСО РК 5.04.033-2011» [1], которое сыграло важнейшую роль в становлении института магистратуры профильного и научно-педагогического направлений.

Один из основных вопросов подготовки магистрантов в рамках важного на сегодня процесса аккредитации вузов, на наш взгляд, основывается на стратегической цели самого Болонского процесса, предполагающей «содействие мобильности путем преодоления препятствий эффективному осуществлению свободного передвижения». Для этого перед казахстанской системой стоит задача достижения максимально сходного уровня высшего образования с европейскими странами, а выдаваемые по результатам обучения научные степени должны быть наиболее прозрачными и легко сопоставимыми, что в свою очередь, привело к введению в вузах системы перезачета кредитов, выдачи специального приложения к диплому на основе подвергшихся процессу реформирования учебных рабочих планов специальности «Музыкальное образование».

Для обеспечения нужных для этого условий и соответствующего образовательного статуса в нашем университете были учтены и включены:

- обязательный минимум требований к подготовке специалиста на основе ГОСО магистратуры по специальности «Музыкальное образование»;
- учёт и изучение специфики Северного региона республики, в котором расположен вуз;
- индивидуальная специфика нашего вуза, сложившихся традиций в обучении и воспитании, сотрудничества и взаимосвязи различных научных школ, к которым относится профессорско-преподавательский состав.

Основой развития нашего вуза является постепенный переход к университетскому комплексу, в основе которого лежит схема "образование-наука-технопарк" [4].

При подготовке будущих магистров музыкального образования важным является совершенствование целенаправленного управления процессом профессионально-познавательной деятельности обучающихся, что возможно при выявлении и учёте существенных закономерностей процесса усвоения знаний, формирования умений и навыков. В связи с этим очевидна необходимость нахождения наиболее эффективных способов построения и реализации учебного процесса при правильном выборе и реализации инновационных методов обучения. Особое внимание должно уделяться самообучению магистрантов. Как показывает анализ вузовской практики, если преподаватель стимулирует освоение магистрантами способов самостоятельной подготовки, то он, привыкая к самообучению, ставит перед собой цель и стремится к её достижению, приобретая теоретические знания, овладевая навыками и приёмами осуществления учебно-исследовательской деятельности, развивая необходимые профессиональные и личностные качества и умения.

В процессе обучения будущих магистров музыкального образования происходит наглядная демонстрация возможности освоения современных музыкально-педагогических методик и новых образовательных компьютерных технологий.

Одним из таких направлений, учитываемый нами в процессе подготовки будущих магистров музыкального образования, является процесс интеграции медиаобразования и традиционного процесса обучения в современном вузе.

При этом, для успешного управления процессом музыкального образования, формирования профессионального креативного исполнительского потенциала обучающихся, современному магистру музыкального образования желательно использовать не только традиционные музыкальные инструменты, но и современные электронные музыкальные инструменты: клавишные синтезаторы, мультимедийные компьютеры, оснащенные программами для создания музыки, обучение которым органично включено в учебный план специальности.

В современном образовательном процессе магистр музыкального образования должен владеть не только музыкально-исполнительскими навыками, но и обладать высоким уровнем профессиональной компетенции в области информационных технологий, умением руководствоваться имеющимися в его арсенале знаниями в данной области; быть профессионально мобильным в данном направлении, что учтено в нашем случае в виде внедрения в учебно-образовательный процесс соответствующих спецкурсов по выбору, успешно апробированных и вызывающих большой интерес со стороны студентов. При этом в вузовской практике они приобретают для себя профессиональные компетенции в области использования информационных технологий в виде:

- решения музыкально-дидактических задач;
- самообучения и самоорганизации;

- работы в команде (планирование, распределение функций, взаимопомощь, взаимоконтроль);
- получения навыков публичных выступлений (обязательное проведение предзащит и защит проектов с выступлениями авторов, с вопросами, дискуссиями).

Актуальным вопросом в системе подготовки магистров международного уровня является вопрос свободного владения иностранным языком. Магистранты изучают иностранные языки, знание которых стало необходимостью не только для международного общения, но и для глубокого изучения мирового научного и творческого опыта в области музыкального образования, для расширения профессионального мастерства, что в свою очередь должно иметь своё отражение в магистерской диссертации музыкально-образовательного направления. Для решения данной задачи важными становятся как изучение элективных курсов с помощью профессоров, приглашённых из-за рубежа, так и наличие кратковременных зарубежных стажировок и т. д. Особое внимание в ходе подготовки магистрантов уделяется языковой профессионализации учебного процесса. Что имеет своё должное практическое воплощение, в этом году наши магистранты побывали по запланированной мобильности в вузах Великобритании, Италии и Польши.

В ходе вузовской работы установлено, что система профессиональной подготовки в магистратуре включает в себя принципы, содержание, формы и методы в условиях сочетания и взаимодействия многочисленных казахстанских национальных культур, педагогики и синтеза искусств как основы интегративной модели подготовки будущего магистра музыкального образования.

Актуальным является также учёт в ходе профессиональной подготовки магистров следующих возможностей их полихудожественного развития:

- целостности и этапности подготовки (единство ценностно-ориентационного, когнитивно-интеллектуального, процессуально-преобразовательного и эмоционально-мотивационного компонентов на каждом из двух взаимосвязанных циклов подготовки учителя в условиях интеграции аудиторного обучения и профессионально-исследовательской практики;
- креативной доминанты (воспитание творчеством и учебно-творческий тренинг в процессе подготовки);
- «очеловечивания» целей учебно-воспитательного процесса, удовольствие и наслаждение как стимул для раскрепощения и творческого самовыражения;
- междисциплинарных связи и синтеза искусств в структуре всех циклов дисциплин по выбору профильного цикла учебного плана;
- адекватности выбора организационных форм, методов и средств полихудожественного образования поставленным целям и задачам профессиональной деятельности будущего учителя с учетом социокультурной адаптации детей и региональных особенностей данной местности;

- интонационности искусства, способствующей развитию у студентов «внутреннего слуха», восприимчивости к выразительным возможностям материала конкретного вида искусства в целостном музыкально-педагогическом процессе.

Музыкальное искусство и музыкальное образование входит в сферу оперативных энергоинформационных составляющих современного общества. Ее бытование опирается на инфраструктуры хранения музыкальной информации (ноты, книги, древние и новые музыкальные рукописи; технологии звукозаписи, виды искусств, связанные с технологиями звукозаписи – кино, театр, формы бытования и трансляции – телевидение, радио, научные знания о музыке и жанрах искусства), и благодаря им входит в долговременные материальные и информационные составляющие. Изучение современных компьютерных, мультимедийных систем и их значение в изучении музыкального искусства неоспоримо и, соответственно, находится в центре системы обучения магистрантов в системе музыкального образования.

Основными сферами деятельности магистра в области музыкального образования являются: творческая; научно-исследовательская; педагогическая и образовательная; экспертно-аналитическая; культурно-просветительская, профессионально-тренинговая.

В настоящее время в магистратуре КазНУИ выпускаются магистры музыкального образования, готовящие диссертации под руководством профессоров, являющихся ведущими специалистами в различных областях искусства и музыкально-педагогической науки. Особой заботой руководства нашего вуза в ходе открытия магистратуры и её полноценного существования явилось обеспечение кадрового профессорско-преподавательского состава для работы в магистратуре.

Следующий вопрос связан с определением тематики магистерских диссертаций. Учебно-профессиональная деятельность магистрантов в области музыкального образования в процессе их подготовки имеет согласно вышеуказанного ГОСО научно-педагогический профиль. Опираясь на традиции классического университетского образования, наш вуз предлагает систему обучения по подготовке профессионалов новой формации: исследователей и творцов, менеджеров в области музыкального образования. При этом они призваны стать мастерами широкого профиля, способными производить комплексный анализ явлений художественного творчества, использовать полученные знания, как в научной работе, так и в различных областях музыкально-педагогической практической деятельности.

Современная система послевузовской подготовки и аттестации научных кадров в значительной степени основана на соединении продолжения образования и исследования. Она ориентирована, прежде всего, на подготовку специалиста, способного в дальнейшем активно и квалифицированно вести научные исследования, освоившего методологию и методику научных исследований. Академическая степень (диплом) будущего магистра музыкального образования зависит, прежде всего, от содержания диссертации, реального ее значения, а также, отчасти, от авторитета вуза, где работа выполнялась, его научных школ. Этот вопрос является актуальным и на сегодня.

Особую актуальность приобретает тематика и содержание элективных курсов по всем блокам подготовки магистрантов. При этом главное внимание читающих лекторов в нашем вузе подчинено неформальному претворению задач высокого и специализированного уровня музыкального образования. Так, например, важное значение при подготовке магистрантов в области музыкального образования приобретает социологические и аксиологические аспекты изучаемых дисциплин. Поскольку изучение роли и значения музыкального образования и музыкального искусства в жизни современного общества позволяет дать научное обоснование и полноценное раскрытие избранной тематики магистерских диссертаций. Особенно важным является обращение к национальной тематике, к раскрытию вопросов, касающихся традиционной казахской культуры, её общественных и коммуникативных возможностей в социуме.

Современное магистерское образование должно базироваться не только и не столько на учебных дисциплинах, сколько на инновационных способах мышления и деятельности. Сформировать современного специалиста, умеющего профессионально мыслить и действовать, невозможно без использования методов, основанных на инновационных образовательных технологиях, методов, активизирующих учебный процесс, обеспечивающих саморазвитие, самосознание магистрантов музыкального образования. Внедрённая в Казахстане кредитная система обучения создала условия для усиления инновационной составляющей в музыкальном образовании, в частности, дала право самостоятельного включения дисциплин инновационного содержания (в рамках блока дисциплин по выбору), возможность использования научных методов в образовательном процессе в рамках аудиторных занятий, а также в самостоятельной работе магистрантов.

Современные инновационные технологии представлены проектно-организованными, проблемно-ориентированными, активными и интерактивными методами обучения, которые взаимодействуют и взаимодополняют друг друга.

При этом возможности инновационных технологий обучения основаны на следующих профессионально-содержательных аспектах:

- ориентации на практические результаты деятельности, на использование передовых достижений музыкально-педагогической науки и практики;
- использовании новейших форм, методов и средств обучения, моделирующих реальные условия профессиональной деятельности будущих магистров музыкального образования;
- интенсификации процесса обучения, основанной на эффективном использовании учебно-информационных ресурсов;
- проектировании высокоэффективной учебно-профессиональной деятельности магистрантов и преподавателей, оптимизации процедур её составляющих;
- углублении фундаментальной подготовки с ориентацией её на будущую профессиональную деятельность обучающихся магистрантов;
- гарантированность в получении инновационно-ориентированного обучения [4].

Обобщая вышеизложенное, необходимо отметить, что подготовка магистрантов в области музыкального образования трудоёмкий процесс, но в тоже время имеет большие перспективы и наличие соответствующих проблем, требующих своевременного решения.

При этом, цель процесса формирования профессионально-инновационной креатосферы будущих магистров в системе музыкального образования Казахстана определяется привитием им инновационно-профессионального стиля мышления, обеспечением высокого уровня развития личности обучающихся, как в интеллектуальном, так и в духовно-эстетическом отношении, а также освоением ими методологии нововведений в профессиональной музыкально-образовательной сфере.

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ГУЛЬНАР ТУЯКБАЕВНА АЛПЕИСОВА / GULNAR ALPEISOVA

ЭТНОКУЛЬТУРНАЯ СОСТАВЛЯЮЩАЯ СОВРЕМЕННОГО МУЗЫКАЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РЕСПУБЛИКИ КАЗАХСТАН

ETHNOCULTURAL COMPONENT IN THE CONTEMPORARY MUSICAL EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN

Аннотация / Abstract

This article discusses the problems of modern music education. As one of the ways to solve these problems it is suggested to renew the content of the musical theoretical disciplines and introduction of new courses. The development of musical ethno-courses allows distributing the knowledge about language of traditional culture and also preserving ethno-cultural identity.

Во всех сферах современного образования Казахстана происходят кардинальные изменения, разрабатываются новые государственные общеобязательные стандарты, программы. В русле этих процессов находится и профессиональное музыкальное образование, которое, опираясь на мировые достижения культуры, науки, искусства, техники, информационные технологии, стремится учитывать национальные особенности казахского народа.

Процесс глобализации, происходящий в современную эпоху, значительно изменил не только экономику, но и культурный облик нашей страны. Формируется новое музыкальное пространство, наполненное формами и структурами, обеспечивающими коммуникацию между различными народами мира. Именно при взаимодействии, диалоге культур особенно ярко проявляются принципы и особенности каждой отдельной культуры, что должно учитывать современное музыкальное образование. Тем более, «именно этническая музыка и поддержание ее традиций способствовали сохранению того или иного народа как самостоятельного социо-культурного объекта» [7, с. 14].

В целом, об этнокультурном направлении в образовании, направленном «на сохранение этнокультурной идентичности личности путём приобщения к родному языку и культуре с одновременным освоением ценностей мировой культуры» уже указывалось в государственных документах [6]. В законе республики Казахстан «Об образовании» (1999 г.), в качестве главной задачи системы образования определяется «создание необходимых условий для получения образования, направленных на формирование, развитие и профессиональное становление личности на основе национальных и общечеловеческих ценностей, достижений науки и практики; развитие творческих, духовных и физических возможностей личности, формирование прочных основ нравственности и здорового образа жизни, обогащение интеллекта путем создания условий для развития индивидуальности» [5].

Отвечая на поставленные задачи, ученые, преподаватели и методисты Казахстана создают новые альтернативные программы по музыкальному образованию, целью которых является воспитание достойных граждан Республики Казахстан, знающих обычаи, традиции и искусство своего народа и уважающих их как самое ценное достояние. Ведь только личность является хранителем определенных ценностей, в том числе ценностей национальной культуры. Однако только созданием альтернативных программ не решить проблем в формировании культурной личности на основе ее идентификации со своей исконной культурой и усвоения других культур через познание собственной. Необходимо наполнение содержания профессионального музыкального образования национальной ментальностью. Ментальность по определению К. Нурлановой «такое взаимосвязанное целое, которое определяют готовность, установку, предрасположенность чувствовать, мыслить, действовать определенным образом», и далее, по ее мнению, «в основе формирования менталитета народа лежат традиции, культура, социальная структура, весь мир обитания человека» [10, с. 1].

Поэтому, в целях актуализации этнокультурного образования принципиальное значение приобретает постижение учащейся молодежью специфики национальной музыки, а также разработка учебного содержания и технологий, ориентированных на систематическое усвоение духовных ценностей национальной культуры. Понимание «национальная музыкальная культура» включает синтез национально-специфического или этнического, национально-особенного и инонационального (как результат межкультурных взаимодействий), а также все музыкальные элементы и формы в этническом проявлении. Как известно, самобытная музыка явилась одним из главных факторов, который способствовал зарождению и утверждению национальных особенностей и отличий людей разных этнических общностей.

В профессиональном музыкальном образовании имеется ряд дисциплин, направленных на изучение национальной музыкальной культуры (история казахской музыки, музыкальная этнография, традиционная культура и фольклор). Это - дисциплины исторического характера, дающие целостное представление об историческом процессе развития казахского музыкального фольклора и профессионального искусства, его основных жанрах и видах.

Содержание же музыкально-теоретических дисциплин, задачами которых является постижение логики организации музыкальных произведений, отражает принципиальную направленность на изучение мировой (европейской) академической музыки. Они, музыкально-теоретические курсы, методически отработанные в течение двух последних столетий в российских консерваториях, составляют базовый компонент современного профессионального образования.

Для исполнителей европейской академической музыки дисциплины музыкально-теоретического цикла, воспитывающие понимание реальных связей между музыкальными элементами целого в произведении, представляются важными и необходимыми. Для формирования же исполнителя традиционной музыки (национальной), они, воспитывая логику организации европейских музыкальных опусов, не дают самого главного –

понимания художественной сущности и музыкального языка исполняемых на народных инструментах произведений.

Педагогические исследования ряда лет по проблемам освоения казахской музыкальной культуры учащимися в процессе их подготовки к профессиональной деятельности в условиях Казахстана выявили противоречия между содержанием изучаемых предметов и исполняемой музыкой. Глубоко осмыслив эти противоречия, домбрист и музыковед Б. Аманов, обосновал и внедрил в практику преподавания курс домбрового сольфеджио. Новая музыкально-теоретическая дисциплина решала задачу сохранения ценностных качеств казахского традиционного музыкального обучения, была направлена на воспитание слуха устными формами работы и готовила музыканта к творческой деятельности. «Научно-педагогические идеи Б. Аманова, получившие развитие в исследованиях ряда ведущих казахстанских музыковедов, создали мощный методологический инструмент, позволявший применять форму устного обучения в рамках европеизированной системы образования» [2, с. 211].

Практическим продолжением этих идей явился комплексный курс сольфеджио для факультетов народных инструментов, разработанный и введенный кафедрой гармонии и сольфеджио Алматинской консерватории им. Курмангазы. Как считает профессор У. Джумакова, «изучение в 1970-е годы и затем внедрение в 1980-ые годы методов традиционного обучения (Б. Аманов, А. Мухамбетова), а также разработка так называемого «домбрового сольфеджио» (С. Раимбергенова, С. Утегалиева) были тесно связаны с осознанием традиционного искусства в современной культуре как аутентичного вида художественной деятельности, задачей которого является сохранение подлинности его смысла и структуры» [4, с. 333].

В последние годы курс, направленный на воспитание слуха посредством постижения музыкального языка традиционной казахской музыки, получил название этносольфеджио. Обоснование, теоретические и практические основы, а также его определение были изложены в кандидатском исследовании автора настоящей статьи: «Этносольфеджио - это дисциплина, формирующая совокупность музыкальных знаний, умений, навыков, на основе которых функционирует казахский музыкальный язык в фольклоре, самодетельном и профессиональном творчестве. Цель этносольфеджио в Казахстане – практическое освоение казахского музыкального языка в опоре на осознание системы его логико-структурных закономерностей» [1, с. 1].

Содержание этносольфеджио, являющегося в настоящее время не базовой дисциплиной, а лишь курсом по выбору, значительно расширилось. Если в 1970-ые годы стояла задача сохранения ценностных качеств казахского традиционного музыкального искусства, то теперь она изменилась. Сегодня необходимо разработать комплекс музыкально-теоретических дисциплин, формирующий не только музыкальный слух на основе традиционной музыки, но и знания самого языка традиционной музыки. Ведь музыкальное образование «созданное в социалистические времена по европейской кальке, оказалось целиком и полностью направленным на разрушение основ традиционной культуры, что мы и можем сейчас наблюдать» [8, с. 452]. Поэтому технология освоения языка национальной музыкальной культуры, как

хранилища «глубинных слоев его культуры, незаменимый фундамент психо-эмоционального и духовного опыта, основа музыкальных шедевров, являющихся достоянием мировой музыкальной культуры» [9, с. 391], направлена на формирование системы знаний о нем.

Технология позволит также сформировать национальный интонационно-музыкальный «словарь» обучающихся на основе накопления, систематизации характерных интонаций и интонационных комплексов и углубления понимания смысловой выразительности музыкального высказывания. Освоение языка народной и профессиональной национальной музыки (ее интонационности, типов интонирования, приемов разработки музыкального материала) поможет постигнуть логику ее организации и значительно расширит художественно-образное мышление.

Выявленная проблема сегодняшнего дня требует значительного обновления содержания имеющихся музыкально-теоретических дисциплин, либо введения новых курсов, на основе выработки технологий освоения национальной музыкальной культуры, учитывающих ее конкретные особенности. Обновление системы музыкального образования в связи с введением этнокультурного направления не может быть эффективной без серьезной научной поддержки. Необходимо разработка и государственное содействие разработке и введению в базовый компонент таких музыкальных дисциплин, как музыкальная этнопедагогика, музыкальная этнопсихология, этносольфеджио, этногармония и т.д. Новые музыкальные этнодисциплины призваны изучать музыкальные ценный опыт народа, который поможет нахождение путей его использования в современных условиях. «Творения традиционной культуры, вбирая в себя черты национальной психологии, нравственно-эстетическое начало, являются не только ценнейшим источником для изучения традиций и обычаев этносов, но и, своего рода музыкальным материалом в изучении той или иной дисциплины» [3, с. 189].

Таким образом, целенаправленное изучение обучающимися особенностей национальной музыкальной культуры, ориентация на формирование ее понимания как органической части целостной системы духовных ценностей казахской культуры должны быть предметом научно-исследовательской и педагогической науки. Тем более что выявление особенностей национального музыкального искусства в едином процессе историко-культурного развития от прошлого к настоящему и способствует изучению генезиса, становления и развития национального музыкального языка.

Этнокультурная направленность современного образования требует создание такой модели образования, которая ориентирована на сохранение самобытности казахской традиционной музыкальной культуры, и лишь затем оно должно быть направлено на освоение ценностей и стандартов других национальных культур. И при этом важно не утратить этническую идентичность, которая обеспечит восприятие национальных и мировых культурных ценностей.

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ЕРМЕК ЕСИМБЕКОВИЧ КАМШИБАЕВ / YERMEEK KAMSHIBAYEV

ОСНОВНЫЕ ТЕНДЕНЦИИ НАУЧНЫХ ИССЛЕДОВАНИЙ В РАМКАХ ДОКТОРАНТУРЫ PHD

THE MAIN TENDENCIES OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH WITHIN DOCTORAL STUDIES OF PHD

Аннотация / Abstract

В данной статье рассмотрены основные тенденции научных исследований в рамках докторантуры PhD в реализации инновационного развития страны. Проанализированы характерные особенности государственной системы образования и науки, обобщены актуальные задачи и возможные пути решения. Выявлена и обоснована необходимость реализации сложного процесса разработки инновационной политики государства. На основе проведенного исследования автором предлагается мнение об усилении обеспечения необходимых условий для полной концентрации докторанта на выполняемой теме исследований.

The main tendencies of scientific research within PhD studies in realization of the innovative development of the country are considered. Characteristics of the state education system and science are analyzed, acute tasks and possible solutions are generalized. Need of realization of difficult process of development of innovative policy of the state is revealed and proved. On the basis of the conducted research by the author the opinion on strengthening of providing necessary conditions for full concentration of the doctoral candidate on the carried-out subject of researches is offered.

Переход на трехступенчатую систему высшего образования «бакалавриат – магистратура – докторантура PhD» завершился с момента вручения первых казахстанских дипломов докторов PhD в середине 2008 г. Несмотря на очевидные преимущества Болонского процесса, связанные с повышением мобильности студентов и преподавателей, а также взаимным признанием квалификаций и дипломов, ряд его принципов до сих пор вызывают оживленную дискуссию в странах Европейского Союза. Для Республики Казахстан по-прежнему спорными остаются вопросы, связанные с прекращением подготовки научных работников через институт соискательства и недостаточной целевой финансовой поддержкой высших учебных заведений на открытие докторантуры, в частности, для привлечения зарубежных руководителей. Ограниченное количество грантовых мест, выделяемых на проведение исследований, во многом и определяет низкие результаты научной деятельности в казахстанских университетах. Доля магистрантов и докторантов ведущих университетов мира составляет от 40 до 60% от общего количества студентов. В то время как в Казахстане этот показатель ниже 10%.

Казахстан является сырьевым государством, которое экспортирует нефть, металлы и другие невозобновляемые природные ископаемые. Казахстан

является самой крупной сухопутной страной в мире, не имеющей выхода к морю, что порождает очень острую проблему вывоза своей экспортной продукции. Однако принцип самодостаточности любой страны требует найти такие способы существования, которые призваны, в первую очередь, защищать национальную безопасность страны, сводя к минимуму риск от возможных недружелюбных акций иных государств. Поэтому экспорт сырья и природных ресурсов – это такой источник существования государства, который наиболее сильно подвержен колебаниям мировых цен, ситуации в других государствах или политического климата. В связи с этим остро стоит вопрос, как развить стабильную экономику, насытить ее наукоемкими технологиями, не основанными на растрате природных богатств, то есть наименее разрушительными для природы. Стране надо как можно скорее вовлекаться в процесс преобразования страны из экспортера сырья в страну - экспортера технологий и знаний, переходить не просто к производству, но к интенсивным и высокотехнологичным способам производства, мало зависящим от добычи и экспорта сырья, и в полной мере использующим главный капитал любого государства – людей.

В Казахстане есть, по крайней мере, два привлекательных направления или отрасли, которые способны при минимуме усилий и капиталовложений давать устойчивую отдачу в виде твердой валюты. Первое – это адаптация и реэкспорт технологий. Второе – экспорт, адаптация и реэкспорт знаний (экономика знаний). Эти два направления могут заработать именно сейчас, пока в стране еще есть высокий образовательный уровень. Отсутствие правильной вузовской системы не дает возможность раскрыться таланту, и со временем умные и одаренные просто уезжают в другие более престижные вузы за границей.

В настоящее время, в Казахстане есть еще достаточные кадры, которые при надлежащих организационных мерах способны сделать рывок в области производства высоких технологий. Уже через 15-20 лет ситуация может так ухудшиться, что в стране сложится катастрофическое положение с высшим образованием, наукой, наукоемкими производствами и технологией. Хороший ученый или технократ растится десятилетиями, а потерять свою квалификацию он может в течение всего лишь нескольких лет, если он не занимается своим делом постоянно.

Такое ближневосточное государство с очень высоким образовательным уровнем, как Израиль, приняло как государственную политику так называемую «technology transfer» (ре-экспорт технологий), они добавляют свое знание передовой технологии, новых приборных возможностей, новой программной продукции, новой микроэлектронной элементной базы, и т.д., т.е. в итоге свое ноу-хау.

По аналогичному пути пошла и послевоенная Япония, у которой в то время не было ни денег, ни сырья, но которая имела довольно высокообразованное население. Япония стала закупать изобретения и патенты всех стран, в первую очередь, из Америки. Это привело к экономическому чуду. Например, «Sony» купила технологию производства транзистора у американской фирмы AT&T, а через пару лет она не только производила их, но и усовершенствовала и использовала их в своих портативных приемниках и

первые ее приемники с транзисторами были проданы именно в США. Но у Японии было то преимущество перед Казахстаном, что страна имела естественные границы (море). Этот факт затрудняет контрабанду, которая всегда очень опасна для развития технологий. Япония также имела временную американскую администрацию, которая сломала традиционно-родовую олигархическую экономическую систему «дзайбацу» (финансовая клика, монополии и финансовая олигархия Японии). Многие быстро развивающиеся страны Юго-Восточной Азии, такие как Таиланд, Вьетнам, Малайзия, Филиппины, ориентированы на простую «отверточную технологию», что намного удешевляет продукцию.

Причина отсталости образования не в людях, но намного глубже – в неправильной командной системе образования и науки в Казахстане. Чтобы сломать эту систему, вернувшихся из-за границы исследователей надо сразу назначать на высокие должности, тогда ценой нескольких лет тяжелой работы они сумеют наладить работу хотя бы в нескольких университетах. Однако инерция системы настолько велика, особенно в среднем звене, что очень трудно сломать устаревшую систему.

Конечно, остается еще открытым вопрос, а КАК сделать все это, даже зная, ЧТО надо делать, то есть, как начать развитие технологии в стране, если надо платить пенсии и зарплату?

Для этого нужна методическая и техническая помощь высокоразвитых стран. Например, развитию микроэлектронной отрасли в Корее, Таиланде, Вьетнаме способствовала техническая помощь японских фирм. В ответ они получили более облегченный допуск к внутреннему рынку этих стран. В результате, сейчас Республика Корея экспортирует больше микросхем, чем сама Япония. Такая помощь не требует капитала до поры до времени. Кроме того, всегда остается возможность быстро свернуть все усилия, если ситуация изменилась, для концентрации их на другом направлении.

Перечень вузов в Советском Союзе повторял перечень министерств, что было в то время оправдано, так как финансирование таких вузов шло не только через Минобразования, но и по линии отраслевых министерств. С развалом централизованной командно-административной системы, отпала необходимость сохранения такого деления. Вузы теперь должны выживать, конкурируя друг с другом. Борясь за абитуриента и предлагая более дешевую продукцию, каковой являются знания. На самом деле знания – самый дорогой и самый специфичный товар, которому Казахстан обязан своему прошлому, а именно СССР, в котором уровень фундаментального образования был одним из лучших в мире. Еще одна страна, где уровень фундаментальных знаний поддерживается государством – это Индия.

Следует отметить, что в современном мире все высокоразвитые страны составили некий симбиоз в области образования. Например, известно, что США рассчитывает свои будущие замыслы на приток математиков из Китая, Индии и частично СНГ. Поэтому они не тратят больших усилий на развитие начального вузовского образования («undergraduate education» или колледж), и, как следствие, оно в США намного хуже, чем например, в Европе или в СНГ. Зато США имеют наилучшее в мире образование для среднего вузовского образования (в graduate schools) и аспирантов/докторантов (в post

graduate schools). Подавляющее большинство студентов в них – китайцы и индусы. Сами американцы не идут туда, так как они преимущественно уходят в бизнес уже после колледжа.

Казахстан обладает огромным образовательным потенциалом, и он мог бы стать перевалочной базой технологии, как это делают все страны Юго-Восточной Азии и Израиль. Например, Израиль продает образование в Малайзию и во многие африканские страны. Преподавание для них, а также для всех желающих ведется на английском языке. То же самое делается в Таиланде, например, в университете технологий Суранари, Южной Кореи.

Проведем небольшой экскурс в вузовскую систему США. Университеты в США бывают городские, бывают принадлежащие одному штату, бывают религиозные, а также частные университеты и колледжи. Например, хорошо известные Гарвард и МИТ – это частные университеты. Есть прославленные университеты, принадлежащие одному штату, например, университет штата Огайо, в котором учатся 50 тыс. студентов, и который славится своим высоким качеством обучения. Налогоплательщики данного штата платят 2% от дохода, как налог штата и половина этого налога, т.е. 1% от дохода, идет на нужды образования внутри штата, включая детсады, начальные и средние школы, а также колледжи и университеты.

Краеугольный камень образования в США – оно платное. Это способ значительного повышения мотивации студента. Например, Европа славилась своим бесплатным образованием, но это привело к краху образования, например, в Германии и Англии. Сейчас в них постепенно вводится платное обучение в университетах. Президенты (ректоры) университетов выбираются из кандидатов-специалистов с мировым именем. Дело в том, что имя любого ученого стоит больших денег и дает немедленный доход в виде притока пожертвований и притока студентов. Отбор производится специальным попечительским советом, в котором всего один ученый-педагог, а все остальные бизнесмены, лауреаты, конгрессмены, и другие известные люди, желающие помочь университету.

Отбор преподавателей ведется многими способами. Так называемый внутренний отбор – самый плохой вид отбора преподавателей. Лучшие университеты делают отбор по всей стране или по всему миру. Отбор производится отборочной комиссией кафедры, в которую может входить, а может и не входить заведующий кафедрой. Вообще роль завкафедрой в США практически сведена к минимуму, поэтому на эту должность часто бывает не просто уговорить преподавателя. Постоянная работа «tenured position» существует в США начиная с уровня доцента (Associated Professor) во всех вузах, а, например, в Гарварде – с уровня профессора. Вначале преподаватели берутся на работу по контракту, на испытательный срок от 1 года до нескольких лет (tenure-track position). Но даже того, кто находится на временной позиции, нельзя уволить без наличия на то серьезных причин. Например, в Австралии ему предлагается 2-х годовая зарплата («retire package») перед прекращением контракта.

Гарвард имеет один факультет искусств и науки («Faculty of Arts and Science»), где работает около 1000 преподавателей (половина из них профессора) и более 10 тыс. студентов и 9 школ: бизнеса, дизайна, религии,

образования, правительственная школа имени Кеннеди, юридическая, медицины, дантистов, и общественного здоровья. Казахский национальный университет имени Аль-Фараби имеет 12 факультетов. Например, биологический факультет состоит из 9 кафедр и имеет 12 профессоров. По числу научных статей на человека в год факультет имеет примерную цифру около 1.5 статьи/год на человека, в том числе в нереферируемых изданиях, которые за границей не считаются публикациями.

Факультет искусств и науки Гарварда («Faculty of Arts and Science») имеет 36 кафедр, среди них 2 кафедры биологического профиля: «молекулярной и клеточной биологии» и «биологии». Кафедра биологии имеет 32 преподавателя, из них 22 профессора. Количество опубликованных трудов за год в течение последних 5 лет свыше 500, что дает отношение примерно 15 статей/человека в год. В среднем в Гарварде около 10 статей в год на человека в известных международных журналах, считается нормой. Такое число статей дается большим количеством студентов и аспирантов, которые не только не платят ничего за обучение, но и получают приличную зарплату.

По научной продукции, один факультет американского университета намного опережает научную продукцию ведущего университета Казахстана. Следует отметить, что всего в США около 5000 колледжей и университетов, и не все они такие передовые, но есть десяток таких, которые называются «Ivy League», и которые в значительной степени диктуют моду в системе образования.

Суммируя можно сказать, что если слить все крупные вузы города Алматы в один, то он будет всего как один средний американский университет. Например, университет штата Огайо имеет около 50 тысяч студентов, а есть и такие монстры, как университет штата Нью-Йорк (State University of New York) с числом студентов около 100 тысяч.

Причина, по которой казахстанские университеты предпочитают жить по отдельности (а это означает дублировать все службы и расходы, например, иметь отдельные здания, штаты, машинный парк, гаражи, дачные участки, оргтехнику и прочее), а не вместе, предельно проста: неправильная организация и неправильный менеджмент. Это слишком большая роскошь даже для богатых университетов в Японии, США и Германии.

Наглядный пример из истории развития технологии в Южной Корее. По климатическим условиям, по запасам природных ископаемых Северная Корея (КНДР) находится в более выгодном положении, чем Южная Корея. В 60-ых годах XX века Южная Корея была бедной страной, только начинающей свое промышленное развитие. Тем не менее, государство прекрасно понимало важность развития науки и технологии. Поэтому был создан новый государственный центр – Корейский институт науки и технологии (KIST). Во вновь созданный институт были приглашены корейские ученые и инженеры, работавшие за границей. В 1971 году на базе KIST был создан учебный вуз нового типа, современный корейский институт науки и технологии, сокращенно KAIST, который относился не к министерству образования, как все остальные вузы, а был в ведении министерства науки и технологий и задумывался как институт, предназначенный для проведения глубоких научных исследований.

Структура института была двухступенчатая, то есть, взята с американской системы, 4 и 2 года. Число студентов старшей ступени (graduate students) было намного больше, чем число студентов младшей (undergraduate students). Отметим, что в обычных вузах наоборот, число младших студентов больше. Все студенты этого института получали государственные стипендии и, кроме того, они не оплачивали обучение и могли бесплатно жить в общежитии института.

Результат такого государственного подхода впечатляет: сейчас Республика Корея занимает ведущее место в мире в области производства микроэлектронных изделий. А микроэлектроника – это отрасль, являющаяся вершиной развития фундаментальных наук: математики, физики и химии.

Успешная исследовательская работа исключает стандартный подход. Каждая из изучаемых дисциплин в докторантуре имеет собственные особенности и предполагает использование различных способов проведения исследований. Вместе с тем, руководители отличаются в своих подходах к методологии исследований. Студенты, решившие продолжить обучение в докторантуре, имеют различный опыт и мотивацию и также ставят перед собой различные цели. В отличие от бакалавриата и магистратуры, обучение по программе докторантуры имеет ряд отличительных моментов. Прежде всего, это выражается в тех изменениях, которые происходят с молодыми исследователями: повышается степень ответственности за собственное обучение, происходит трансформация в профессиональном плане – из «новичка» в «эксперта» в своей области. Выполнение собственной научной работы развивает навыки самостоятельного подбора информации, относящейся к исследовательскому проекту, умение критически мыслить, планировать свое время и «следующий шаг».

Ввиду того, что в некоторых западных странах принята одноступенчатая система послевузовского образования (Великобритания), по окончании которой выпускникам в случае успешной защиты диссертации присваивается степень доктора философии (или аналогичная ей), в странах СНГ данная ученая степень часто приравнивается к степени кандидата наук. Таким образом, в этом случае ученая степень доктора наук оценивается как более высокая относительно этого варианта степени доктора философии [1, с. 30].

В некоторых западных странах существует титул, присуждаемый тому, кто уже является носителем докторской степени, и который также может иногда приравниваться к титулу доктора наук в постсоветских государствах. Так, в англо-саксонской академической системе (Великобритания и некоторые страны Содружества) следующая после доктора философии (Ph.D.) степень в естественных науках носит название доктор наук (Doctor of Science, D.Sc.); для исследователей, специализирующихся в филологии – доктор словесности (Doctor of Letters, D.Litt.); в области права – доктор права (Doctor of Laws, LL.D.). Однако отличие состоит в том, что присвоение этой степени обычно осуществляется не по результатам защиты диссертации, а по сумме опубликованных работ и по общему вкладу в науку или даже по общественной или публицистической деятельности. По этой причине звание доктора наук, доктора словесности или доктора права является прежде всего почётной

степенью, вручаемой после многолетних заслуг, а не результатом направленной работы на получение степени [2, с. 305].

За основу структуры и содержания нового казахстанского университета нужно принять пример лучших университетов Канады, славящихся на весь мир качеством обучения, например, университета МакГилл в Монреале. Однако можно учиться, например, и у того же Таиланда (кстати, за основу они тоже брали канадские университеты).

Следует отметить, что успешное завершение обучения по программе докторантуры определяется множеством факторов, к которым относятся как целенаправленная работа самого докторанта, так и усилия со стороны научного руководителя и администрации исследовательского центра по обеспечению необходимых условий для полной концентрации докторанта на выполняемой теме исследований.

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**ИГОРЬ АНАТОЛЬЕВИЧ АРТЕМЬЕВ, АЛЕКСАНДР АНАТОЛЬЕВИЧ
ЗЫРЯНОВ / IGOR ARTEMYEV, ALEXANDER ZYRYANOV**

ОРГАНИЗАЦИОННО-ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКИЕ УСЛОВИЯ ПОВЫШЕНИЯ КАЧЕСТВА ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ В ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОМ КОЛЛЕДЖЕ

ORGANISATIONAL AND PEDAGOGICAL CONDITIONS OF EDUCATION QUALITY IMPROVEMENT IN THE PROFESSIONAL COLLEGE

Аннотация / Abstract

В статье рассматриваются различные организационно-педагогические условия для повышения качества образования в профессиональном колледже. Авторы выделяют такие условия как повышение эффективности управления методом внедрения в систему среднего профессионального образования системы менеджмента качества, мотивацию педагогического персонала, внедрение процессного подхода.

In the article various organizational and pedagogical conditions of education quality improvement in the professional college are considered. Authors allocate such conditions as the increase of management efficiency due to the introduction of the quality management system into the system of secondary professional education, motivation of the pedagogical personnel, and implementation of the process approach.

Новейшими документами Российской Федерации по развитию системы образования актуализировано повышение качества профессиональной подготовки с ориентацией на международные стандарты качества. При решении актуальных проблем – повышения качества образовательной системы и, самое главное, гарантированности этого качества – особую значимость приобретают идеи, связанные с объективностью оценки как уже достигнутых, так и ожидаемых, планируемых результатов образовательной деятельности.

Понимание термина «качество образования» – одна из сложнейших и спорных проблем российского образования. В обобщенном виде качество образования определяется как совокупность свойств и их проявлений, способствующих удовлетворению потребностей человека и отвечающих интересам общества и государства [1].

Проанализировав теоретико-методологические исследования таких авторов, как В. И. Андреев, Б. Е. Гринкруг, Т. В. Давыденко, О. Е. Лебедев, В. Н. Максимова, В. М. Полонский, М. М. Поташник, А. Н. Сергеев, Е. А. Ямбург и др. под качеством образования применительно к профессиональному образованию будем понимать совокупность существенных свойств и характеристик процесса и результатов профессиональной подготовки (профессиональные цели и мотивы; профессиональные знания, умения, навыки; профессионально-ценностную ориентацию, воспитанность, творческое мышление, компетенции), способных удовлетворить потребности студентов, работодателей, социальных партнёров и общества.

Говоря о качестве образования относительно учреждений СПО, необходимо определить стратегическую цель такого учреждения.

Стратегическая цель образовательного учреждения, по нашему мнению, – это формирование способности личности к саморазвитию, самоанализу, самостоятельному принятию решений, самоконтролю и самосовершенствованию на основе освоения полного базового образовательного компонента и дополнительных образовательных услуг.

Решение стоящей перед образовательным учреждением СПО задачи повышения качества образования возможно при осознании того, что качество результата образовательной деятельности, каким является интеллектуальный продукт, достигается качеством образовательного процесса (образовательной услуги), которое в свою очередь детерминируется качеством системы менеджмента на всех уровнях управления профессиональным образовательным учреждением. Решение задач менеджмента качества в СПО концентрируется на объединении отдельных основных и вспомогательных процессов, функций и уровней управления в единую интегрированную систему, все элементы которой способствуют достижению заданного качества образования [4]. При этом предусматривается процесс постоянного взаимодействия образовательной системы с рынком труда, корпоративными партнёрами в лице образовательных учреждений и другими группами социального окружения. Внутренняя среда учреждения среднего профессионального образования с точки зрения организации учебного процесса и его содержания, а также ресурсного обеспечения должна соответствовать внешним изменениям на рынке труда и образовательных услуг.

В результативном и пластичном взаимодействии этих процессов на первый план выходит задача эффективного управления.

Бессистемность, а порой и стихийность в управлении образовательными структурами приводит к негативным изменениям в качестве подготовки выпускника: «наличие многих проблем объясняется пренебрежением некоторыми элементами управленческого цикла, стихийностью в выборе управляющих воздействий, средств, способов, отсутствием целенаправленно осуществляемых связей между ними, пренебрежением необходимостью учёта изменения условий, в которых протекают процессы управления» [7]. Разрешить эту проблему, на наш взгляд, позволит внедрение в СПО системы менеджмента качества (СМК).

Можно выделить следующие основные принципы СМК: ориентация на результат, на потребителя, на выпуск качественной продукции (в нашем случае, продукцией является качественный специалист); лидерство руководства образовательным учреждением; вовлечение персонала в работу по формированию качества подготовки будущего специалиста; процессный подход; системный подход; непрерывное совершенствование; взаимовыгодное отношение с партнёрами.

При внедрении СМК в учреждения среднего профессионального образования рассматриваются и постепенно реализуются следующие задачи: принятие решений, рассмотрение позиций и этапов менеджмента качества; создание Службы по качеству, в которую входит администрация, методисты,

ведущие преподаватели колледжа; определение политики, целей и задач образовательного учреждения; определение и документирование всех процессов СМК; приведение в соответствие прав, обязанностей и ответственности каждого сотрудника; выработка и внедрение форм и методов контроля и отчётности; разработка методических рекомендаций, рабочих инструкций, регламентирующих образовательную деятельность; реорганизация всей структуры управления с целью удаления всех барьеров между подразделениями; формирование рабочей группы для разработки необходимой документации и внедрения ее в подразделения колледжа; анализ результатов контроля, выполнение сотрудниками рекомендаций; информирование сотрудников о результатах.

Одним из основных принципов менеджмента качества (Total Quality Management – TQM), и принципов, положенных в основу новой версии серии стандартов ISO 9001:2008 [2] является процессно-ориентированный подход. Источник утверждает, что желаемый результат достигается эффективнее, если различными видами деятельности и соответствующими ресурсами управляют как процессом. Это приводит к необходимости инвентаризации всех жизненно-важных процессов образовательного учреждения, определению целей процессов, что однозначно требуется Стандартами и директивами ENQA, определению лиц, ответственных за эти процессы, и документальной регламентации этих процессов.

Суть внедрения процессного подхода заключается в том, что организация, в данном случае образовательное учреждение, рассматривается как совокупность взаимосвязанных и взаимодействующих процессов, а управление образовательным учреждением осуществляется посредством управления этими процессами [5].

Цели и преимущества процессного подхода заключаются в том, что процессный подход обеспечивает прозрачность протекания процессов: каждый сотрудник понимает, какую роль он играет в общих процессах организации, позволяет понять, где и когда создаются конкретные продукты и услуги, систематизирует деятельность по улучшению, усиливает ориентацию работы на запросы и интересы потребителей.

Однако процессный подход не является чем-то застывшим и неизменным, он пластичен, благодаря своему внутреннему содержанию и внешнему управлению.

Первым шагом при внедрении процессного подхода является определение и классификация основных процессов образовательного учреждения и составление так называемой обобщенной карты (графическое описание) или реестра (табличное описание) процессов [3].

Вторым шагом при внедрении процессного подхода является построение так называемых спецификаций процессов. Под термином «спецификация процесса» понимается документ верхнего уровня, содержащий информацию об основных атрибутах процесса, включая входы и выходы процесса, цели процесса, измерения и анализ процесса, мероприятия для достижения целей (улучшения) процесса, взаимодействия процесса (поставщики/потребители), ресурсы процесса, документы управления процессом [6].

Кратко изложим схему разработки спецификации процессов, т. к. это позволит наглядно представить роль управления, роль педагогического коллектива в реализации процессного подхода.

Спецификация процесса включает следующие разделы:

1. Раздел утверждения и согласования;
2. Раздел «Наименование процесса», включающий код процесса, в соответствии с принятой в ОУ системой кодирования, полное и сокращенное наименование процесса;
3. Раздел «1. Общие сведения о спецификации», включающий: код процесса, версию и дату разработки спецификации, должность лица, осуществляющего руководство процессом и краткое описание процесса;
4. Раздел «2. Результаты процесса и их потребители», в котором указываются: результаты или выходы процесса; подразделения или другие процессы ОУ, являющиеся потребителями результатов процесса; требования и документы, устанавливающие требования, к результатам процесса;
5. Раздел «3», в котором указываются: входы процесса – входная информация, субъекты или материальные объекты, являющиеся входом для данного процесса; процессы, подразделения ОУ или иные организации, являющиеся поставщиком процесса; требования к входам – требования и документы, устанавливающие требования, к каждому входу процесса;
6. Раздел «4. Согласование требований с руководителями внутренних процессов и подразделений ОУ», в котором указываются руководители процессов или подразделений ОУ, выступающие в качестве поставщиков описываемого процесса. Результатом согласования является гарантия поставщиками описываемого процесса того, что входы процесса будут соответствовать требованиям, определенным в разделе «3. Внешние поставщики и входы процесс»;
7. Раздел «5. Виды деятельности в рамках процесса, управление и требуемые ресурсы», определяет: основные виды деятельности в рамках процесса (подпроцессы или функции), выделяемые в рамках описываемого процесса; регламентирующая документация (указываются ссылки на документы организации – стандарты и документированные процедуры и др.); требуемые ресурсы (исполнители и материальное обеспечение, необходимые для выполнения выделенных видов деятельности или функций);
8. Виза руководителя процесса;
9. Перечень сокращений и обозначений, использованных в спецификации.

Составной частью спецификации являются три приложения:

1. Схема взаимосвязи типовых процессов;
2. Цели процесса и показатели их достижения;
3. Мероприятия по улучшению процесса.

Первое приложение спецификации является рекомендуемым и предназначена для наглядного графического представления места описываемого процесса в структуре процессов ОУ, связи между описываемым процессом и другими процессами по входам/выходам, взаимосвязи различных видов деятельности в рамках описываемого процесса, что позволяет увидеть деятельность ОУ СПО как целостного организма.

Второе приложение спецификации является обязательным и предназначено для определения измеряемых характеристик процесса, определения методов их измерения и анализа полученных результатов, а также планирования целевых показателей измеряемых характеристик процесса, что позволяет сделать его наглядным и управляемым.

Третье приложение спецификации является обязательным и содержит план мероприятий по улучшению процесса с учетом необходимости достижения целевых значений показателей процесса, зафиксированных в приложении. Данное приложение является одним из самых значимых, т.к. позволяет постоянно корректировать деятельность, направленную на улучшение образовательного продукта, в то же время, не меняя сути и внутреннего наполнения каждого из процессов.

Проанализировав возможные подходы и направления деятельности ОУ СПО к решению задач повышения качества образования, нами были выделены некоторые организационно-педагогические условия повышения качества образования в колледже. В трактовке условий мы опираемся на работы Г. И. Железовской, Э. В. Ильенкова, Г. С. Костюка, Б. В. Куприянова, Н. А. Менчинской, И. П. Подласого и др., которые определяют условия как обстоятельства, влияющие на возможность осуществления, на процесс протекания и на успех педагогического процесса.

Таким образом, нами выделены следующие организационно-педагогические условия повышения качества образования в колледже:

1. Внедрение в ОУ СПО системы менеджмента качества (СМК);
2. Повышение роли управления образовательным процессом;
3. Мотивированность и активное вовлечение всего педагогического персонала в работу по повышению качества образовательного процесса;
4. Внедрение процессного подхода в качестве наглядного, эффективного и управляемого инструмента.

Заметим, что выделенные нами условия находятся в иерархической зависимости и реализация одного предполагает учет и реализацию других условий.

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ИМПЕРАТИВ ОТВЕТСТВЕННОСТИ В ГЛОБАЛЬНОМ ОБЩЕСТВЕ КАК ДЕТЕРМИНАНТ СТРАТЕГИИ РАЗВИТИЯ ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ

THE IMPERATIVE OF RESPONSIBILITY IN A GLOBAL SOCIETY AS A DETERMINANT OF EDUCATIONAL STRATEGY DEVELOPMENT

Аннотация / Abstract

Современный этап глобализации социума характеризуется кризисами и катастрофами, составляющими опасность для его существования. Поскольку причины кризисов и катастроф отчасти носят антропологический (когнитивный и этический) характер, постольку проблема ответственности людей за последствия своей деятельности приобретает особую актуальность. Это обстоятельство позволяет говорить о задаче разработки новой этики – этики ответственности (вариант которой предложен Г. Йонасом), но ставшей более актуальной в связи с интенсификацией в последние десятилетия глобализационных процессов. Вторая задача, требующая незамедлительного решения – это разработка на основе этики ответственности новой образовательной стратегии, которая включала бы в себя различные процессы, направленные на формирование ответственной личности: формирование продуктивных психических состояний – способности осознавать опасности, риски, возможности появления негативных последствий человеческой деятельности (в том числе и собственной), объяснение необходимости страха перед опасными явлениями будущего, развитие стратегического мышления, способностей предвидения и прогноза т.п. Результатом реализации такой стратегии должно стать необходимое для выживания отдельного человека и человечества в целом когнитивно-нравственное состояние людей – состояние ответственности за будущее.

The current stage of globalization of the society is characterized by crises and disasters that constitute a threat to its existence. As the causes of the crises and disasters are partly of anthropological (cognitive and ethical) nature, the problem of human responsibility for the consequences of their activities is particularly relevant. This allows us to talk about the task of developing a new ethics – the ethics of responsibility (a variant of which was suggested by G. Jonas), but has become more urgent with the intensification of globalization in the last two to three decades. The second task, which requires immediate action – is the development of the new educational strategy based on the ethics of responsibility. The latter includes various processes for the formation of a responsible person: formation of productive mental states – the ability to realize the dangers, risks, possibility of occurrence of adverse effects of human activities (including his/her own), an explanation of the need to fear the future hazards, the development of strategic thinking, the ability to foresee and forecast etc. The result of this strategy should become cognitive and moral state of people necessary for the survival of the individual and humanity as a whole – the state of responsibility for the future.

Современный этап процесса глобализации социума, наряду с массой позитивных процессов, характеризуется, как известно, отраслевыми и полномасштабными кризисами и различного рода катастрофами, в совокупности составляющими серьезную опасность для его существования. Очевидно то, что эти кризисы и катастрофы порождаются сложнейшими комплексами обстоятельств и причин, в которых немаловажное место занимают специфика психического склада людей, особенности их когнитивной и практической деятельности.

Поиск причин кризисов и катастроф, средств и способов их предотвращения в настоящее время выступает в форме насущной исследовательской задачи, поскольку его результаты необходимы для разработки стратегии дальнейшего развития образования (в его функциях обучения и воспитания) в интегрированной природно-социальной среде, насыщенной многочисленными рисками.

Поиск же этих причин с неизбежностью приводит к решительному переосмыслению сущности природы человека – его психики, познания и морали, исторического развития, трансформации последних в технически и технологически развитом и информационно насыщенном обществе нашего времени. Одним из итогов этого переосмысления, начавшегося во второй половине XX века, стала критика современного типа рациональности, лишенного, по мнению многих мыслителей (от К. Ясперса до К. Хьюбера), этической составляющей.

На негативные последствия углубляющейся «трещины» между интенсивной познавательно-практической деятельностью людей и их нравственностью указал австрийский ученый и философ К. Лоренц. В вышедшей в 1973 году книге «Восемь смертных грехов цивилизованного человечества», он, говоря о современном человеке, приписал ему, среди прочего, такие «грехи» как: «опустошение жизненного пространства», «бег наперегонки с самим собой», «тепловую смерть чувства» (или «всеобщее притупление чувства») – словом, все то, что лишает его необходимого для выживания развитого самосознания, а вместе с ним – и чувства ответственности [1]. В «Резюме» этой книги он писал о том, что «бег человечества наперегонки с самим собой, подстегивающий гибельное, все ускоряющееся развитие техники, делающий людей слепыми ко всем подлинным ценностям и не оставляющий им времени для подлинно человеческой деятельности – размышления» [1, с. 80].

Фиксация и признание такого рода характеристик как отдельного человека, так и человечества в целом, находящихся на новейшем этапе глобализации, побуждает ставить следующие вопросы: существует ли, все-таки, этика, способная взаимодействовать с рациональностью современного типа, т.е. с рациональностью, сопряженной с новейшей техникой и новейшими технологиями и в то же самое время «повинной» в ряде случаев в наших бедах? Если существует, то какой она должна быть? Каким должно быть ее основополагающее понятие? И как должна измениться традиционная этика для обеспечения выживания человечества?

В этой связи возникают также такие жизненно важные вопросы, как: какие коррективы необходимо внести в существующую систему обучения и

воспитания, чтобы результатами ее функционирования стали люди, осознающие опасности, понимающие риски настоящего и будущего времени (в том числе технически и технологические обусловленные), обладающие к тому же не только чувством ответственности, но и способностями, стратегического мышления, а главное – навыками и приемами предотвращения этих рисков и опасностей?

Стремление ответить на сформулированные вопросы является формой осмысления такой фундаментальной проблемы нашего времени как влияние глобальных процессов, несущих в себе угрозы человеку и обществу, на трансформацию системы образования, призванной, в конечном итоге, минимизировать возможные опасности.

Одной из попыток ответа на такие вопросы в виде новой этики – этики ответственности – была изданная в 1979 году, многократно затем переиздававшаяся резонансная книга немецко-американского философа Г. Йонаса «Принцип ответственности. Опыт этики для технологической цивилизации» [2]. Критический анализ его концепции был дан П. А. Гаджикурбановой [3].

Взросшая технологическая мощь человечества, по мнению Йонаса, вводит новые факторы в нравственное измерение человеческой природы: расширяется сфера коллективных действий, кумулируются итоги технико-технологического изменения мира, возрастает их масштабность и необратимость. Все это ведет к тому, что категория ответственности, которая ранее не была предметом специальных размышлений философов и педагогов, в последнее время оказывается в центре исследовательского внимания.

Первым следствием интенсификации и экспансии человеческой деятельности, урбанизации населения, как мы бы сказали, глобализации общества в целом стало то, что Лоренц назвал «опустошением жизненного пространства». По этой причине, именно сейчас, как никогда ранее, природа должна стать предметом заботы и ответственности человека, поскольку она стала, в отличие от доглобализационного времени, тем, что в значительной мере зависит от нас. Характерно то, что речь при этом идет не только об угрозе окружающей (в данном случае – природной) среде, но и об угрозе физическому существованию отдельных людей человечества.

Дело в том, что современная техника и новейшие технологии влияют на фундаментальные характеристики самого человека, постепенно превращая его в собственный функциональный элемент и материал. Человек, его физическое и психическое состояние, в настоящее время все в большей степени становится продуктом реализации собственных проектов.

Практически безграничная власть человека над природой и собственной сущностью требует включения в сферу этического новых объектов моральной ответственности. Если в традиционной этике нравственно значимая область была ограничена только сферой общения между людьми, то новая этика предполагает ответственность человека за существование природы и за ее целостность. Кроме того, обладая властью произвольно изменять собственный физический облик и свои сущностные свойства, человек должен взять на себя ответственность за неизменность собственной природы и за само существование человечества. Таким образом, получается, что ответственность

приобретает поистине вселенские (глобальные) масштабы. Именно это обстоятельство обосновывается в философии, т. е. в этике ответственности Йонаса.

Другой установкой традиционной этики, требующей в глобальном обществе радикального пересмотра, является то, что она не принимает во внимание отдаленные эффекты человеческой деятельности. Заключенные в ней нравственные требования говорят о том, что она была ограничена обозримыми пространственными и временными рамками.

По мнению Йонаса, подобная позиция предполагает уверенность в том, что природа человека и его место в мире – константы, изменить которые он не в силах, и что сфера влияния человеческих действий ограничена, а также – то, что существуют некие абсолюты, или неизменные свойства человеческой природы, опираясь на которые можно указать критерии моральности поступка, значимые в любые времена и в любой точке вселенной. Очевидно то, что при этом сам поступок оказывается вписанным в узкий пространственный и временной контекст.

В традиционной этике дело представлено так, что начиная действовать, человек каждый раз начинает как бы «с нуля» и не принимает во внимание то, к каким последствиям его действия могут привести через 100 или 200 лет. Неизменность оснований выступала гарантом того, что нравственный поступок останется неизменным, сколько бы времени ни прошло с момента его осуществления. Эта установка в той или иной форме заявлена, как известно, у Платона (в форме абсолютного блага), Канта (в форме категорического императива), Гегеля (в форме абсолютной идеи). Но все это исключало ответственность личности. Такая мораль, по убеждению Йонаса, должна быть преодолена этикой ответственности.

Актуально звучит мысль о том, что поскольку знание последствий своих действий приобретает нравственный смысл и становится первоочередным долгом человечества, это означает, что ближайшие цели всякого действия должны подвергаться оценке с точки зрения их возможных отдаленных последствий и сопутствующих им побочных эффектов. Нравственное действие должно быть вписано в более широкий (глобальный) временной и пространственный контекст, чем тот, с которым имела дело традиционная этика.

Новая этика, включив в себя в качестве принципиальной характеристики, временное измерение, должна в результате стать этикой будущего. Это делает эту этику, именно этику ответственности необходимым фундаментом образовательных стратегий, нацеленных на подготовку молодого поколения к будущей жизни и профессиональной деятельности.

Этика ответственности включает в себя такое экзистенциальное понятие как страх, которое функционирует, как правило, в негативном смысле. В этике же, предложенной Йонасом, страх, именно страх за будущее человечества, страх перед возможным изменением сущности и облика человека становится главным ценностно-образующим принципом настоящего времени. По его образному выражению, сама предполагаемая опасность должна служить компасом новой этике.

Поскольку человечество не может позволить себе рисковать, когда речь идет о самом его существовании, постольку страх становится не только необходимым элементом ответственности, но и даже источником долженствования. Необходимость его существования детерминирует переоценку всех ценностей предшествующей этики.

Йонас предложил пересмотреть иерархию моральных ценностей, потребовав сфокусировать внимание на том, чего мы хотели бы избежать. Эвристическая функция страха заключается, таким образом, в том, что оценивая возможные последствия какого-либо действия, следует принимать во внимание не только и не столько те блага, к которым он может привести, сколько то зло, которое он может повлечь за собой. Страх должен предостеречь человечество от опрометчивых шагов и ориентировать в первую очередь на негативные прогнозы возможных последствий наших действий.

В возведении категории страха в ранг регулятивного принципа новой этики и заключалась существенная переоценка традиционных ценностей. В подавляющем большинстве этических теорий страх трактуется как аффект (страсть), требующий если не полного искоренения, то, по крайней мере, обуздания. Роль страха считалась, как мы знаем, сугубо негативной. Страх считался тем, с чем следует бороться, тем, что мешает здраво мыслить, понимать и трезво оценивать ситуацию, адекватно действовать. Йонас, сохраняя негативную роль страха, наделил, как видно, ее существенно иным смыслом. Страх позволяет отсекал все то, что способно угрожать будущему человека и человечества, его самосохранению, поэтому бороться с подобным страхом бессмысленно, неразумно.

При этом ему приписывается роль инстанции не только позволяющей осознать ценность бытия в горизонте смерти как предельной возможности бытия человечества, но он к тому же наделяется эвристическими функциями. Он может помочь предотвратить гибель человечества, он способен предостеречь. Именно в этом аспекте страх перед ядерной или любой другой катастрофой в современном, во многих отношениях едином может быть наполнен этическим смыслом. Страх, причем не только за себя, но и за Другого, к тому же не только сосуществующего, но и еще не родившегося, является оборотной стороной ответственности и его культивирование на всех этапах формирования личности становится этической задачей.

Этика ответственности включает в себя долг в отношении будущего – выработку и представлений о возможных отдаленных последствиях коллективной практики; и сопряженный с ним долг – отказ от действий, чьи последствия могут угрожать будущему существованию человечества.

Преодолеть утопические надежды на благополучное будущее призван принцип ответственности. В первую очередь мы ответственны за то, чтобы будущие поколения вообще могли жить, и лишь с учетом данного требования мы можем строить содержательные проекты будущей «хорошей жизни».

Йонас предложил формулировки императива ответственности, соответствующие новым, глобальным масштабам человеческого существования и действия и обращенный к новому коллективному типу субъекта действия:

- «поступай так, чтобы последствия твоего действия были совместимы с непрерывностью подлинной человеческой жизни на земле»;
- «включай в свой нынешний выбор будущую совокупность людей в качестве предмета твоего воления»;
- «поступай так, чтобы последствия твоих действий не были разрушительны для будущей возможности жизни как таковой»;
- «не подвергай опасности условия неограниченного дальнейшего существования человечества на земле» [2, с. 36].

Иллюстрируя принципиальное отличие требований новой этики – этики ответственности от нравственных норм предшествовавшей традиции, квинтэссенцию и завершение которой Йонас видел как раз в этике Канта, он сопоставил категорический императив последнего и предложенный им императив ответственности. Их основные различия были отмечены в следующих пунктах: в противоположность кантовскому категорическому императиву, императив ответственности не формален, а содержателен и требует согласия действия с непрерывным продолжением человеческого существования; категорический императив обращен к отдельному индивидууму, связан с его личным выбором, а новый императив обращен не столько к моральной мотивации личности, сколько к сфере социальной политики и предполагает со-ответственность за результаты коллективной деятельности; категорический императив не связан с последствиями действий, тем более с отдаленными; новый императив имеет дело с поступками, имеющими последствия и влияние на будущее положение вещей. Он предположил временной горизонт – «открытое измерение нашей ответственности» [2, с. 38].

Таким образом, ответственность человека перед бытием – это ответственность за преходящее в своей конечности, требование сохранить то, чему угрожает гибель, то, что без специальных усилий человека превратится в небытие. Такого рода позиция близка к позиции социальной экологии, в рамках которой предполагается установить гармоничные отношения с природой, не отказываясь при этом от доминирующего положения человека в мире. Принцип бытия здесь фактически совпадает с принципом сохранения человечества.

Необходимость новой этики, включающей в себя ответственность за бытие человечества, состоит в том, что человечество стоит на краю гибели, будучи не в силах совладать с собственной властью над природой и собственным естеством. Но поскольку человек – это бытие в мире, то сохранение мира является условием его сохранения. Человек есть часть бытия, и только он способен взять на себя ответственность за него.

Определение перспектив, целей и путей дальнейшего развития образования в обществе XXI века никоим образом не может игнорировать императив ответственности, предложенный в новой этике Йонасом, но ставший более актуальным в связи с интенсификацией в последние два-три десятилетия глобализационных процессов.

Это означает, что реформа системы образования должна включать в себя комплекс различных процессов. Это – формирование продуктивных психических состояний – способности осознавать опасности, риски, понимать

возможности появления негативных последствий человеческой деятельности (в том числе и собственной), объяснение необходимости страха перед опасными явлениями будущего, развитие способностей предвидения и прогноза – стратегического мышления, которому придется сейчас особое значение [4, с. 60-62; 5, с. 274-279; 6, с. 117-118; 7, с. 67-70; 8, с. 36-40].

Очевидно то, что экзистенциальные и психологические аспекты прогрессивных трансформаций образовательной сферы не могут быть оторваны от когнитивных. Результатом реализации такой стратегии должно стать когнитивно-нравственное состояние людей – состояние ответственности за будущее единого мира – природы, общества, человека.

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**ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКОЕ ПОНИМАНИЕ ДИВЕРСИФИКАЦИИ
МАТЕМАТИЧЕСКОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ КАК СТРАТЕГИИ РАЗВИТИЯ
ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОЙ ПОДГОТОВКИ В ВУЗЕ**

**PEDAGOGICAL UNDERSTANDING OF DIVERSIFICATION OF
MATHEMATICAL EDUCATION AS A STRATEGY OF DEVELOPMENT OF
VOCATIONAL TRAINING AT THE UNIVERSITY**

Аннотация / Abstract

В статье обоснована актуальность, определены понятия «диверсификация высшего профессионального образования» и «диверсификация математического образования», выделены направления диверсификации математического образования будущего специалиста в современном вузе.

In article relevance is proved, the concepts "higher education diversification" and "diversification of mathematical education" are defined, the directions of diversification of mathematical education in modern university are allocated.

Новые требования, предъявляемые к российской системе образования, обусловленные активным вхождением в мировое и европейское образовательное пространство, приводят к необходимости пересмотра имеющегося научно-методологического инструментария организации высшего профессионального образования. Современная педагогическая наука переживает системные трансформационные процессы, связанные с разработкой стратегий интеграции различных областей знаний. Одним из перспективных стратегических направлений развития высшего профессионального образования является его диверсификация.

Толкование термина «диверсификация» (*лат.* *diversus* – разный и *facere* – делать; *ср.-век.лат.* *diversificatio* – изменение, разнообразие; *англ.* *diversification* – разносторонность) в большинстве справочных изданий начинается с обращения к этимологии. Понятия «разностороннее развитие», «изменение», «разнообразие» являются своего рода семантическим ядром понятия «диверсификация», подчеркивают его сущность при использовании в самых различных научных областях, являются основой для формулирования видовых определений.

Впервые употребляться термин «диверсификация» стал в западноевропейских странах в середине 50-х годов XX в. для обозначения экономического явления, обусловленного усилением к тому времени концентрации производства на уровне отдельных отраслей, динамичностью развития мирового рыночного хозяйства, непредсказуемостью изменений параметров внешней среды, особенно таких как политика, экономика, наука, техника [3, с. 15]. Диверсифицированные предприятия (фирмы), расширяя номенклатуру выпускаемой продукции (услуг), технологии, рынки сбыта,

превращались в сложные многоотраслевые комплексы, что сопровождалось переменами в организационных структурах, внутрифирменной культуре.

В лексике русского языка активное использование термина «диверсификация» в четко определенном значении происходит в 70-е годы XX века, о чем, в частности, свидетельствует включение его в состав Большой Советской Энциклопедии (1972) и словаря-справочника «Новые слова и значения» (1984), а не только вхождение, как это было ранее, в словари иностранных слов и орфографические словари.

В соответствии с определением, приведенном в словаре-справочнике «Новые слова и значения», под диверсификацией понимается отказ от однобокой специализации, приобретение многоотраслевого характера (об экономике стран, регионов, деятельности фирмы, монополии) [7, с. 198]. Здесь очевидна принадлежность термина «диверсификация» к понятийному аппарату экономики, отмечается связь с явлениями достаточно крупного масштаба – экономической деятельностью не только отдельных фирм, монополий, но и целых регионов, стран.

Позднее понятие «диверсификация» стало употребляться в других научных областях, получив, соответственно, иное толкование, модифицирующееся со временем. Так, например, в политической лексике одно из первых определений подчеркивало экономические корни диверсификации, называя ее государственной политикой, направленной на создание современной структуры национального народнохозяйственного комплекса: комплексное многоотраслевое развитие (1989) [4, с. 52]. В более поздних научных источниках по политологии диверсификация стала определяться вне связи с экономикой как сочетание разносторонних подходов к проблеме, разнообразие стилей политической деятельности (2004) [1].

В теории и практики образования понятие «диверсификация» появилось в конце 60-х – начале 70-х годов XX в. в связи со структурным реформированием образовательных систем в Западной Европе и подразумевало разнообразие, разностороннее развитие, расширение видов предоставляемых услуг, приобретение новых видов деятельности [6, с. 53]. Начало его активного использования в отечественной педагогической науке приходится на 90-е годы XX в. и имеет отношение к уровням профессионального обучения. В частности, диверсификацией начального профессионального образования (1995) называется расширение образовательных программ и систем обучения, обеспечивающих расширение номенклатуры, характера и содержания оказываемых образовательных услуг в сфере начального профессионального образования, включая производственное обучение [5, с. 14].

В современной педагогической науке, как показывает анализ исследований, диверсификация рассматривается в качестве:

- одной из основных мировых тенденций развития высшего образования (В. И. Байденко, Ю. Г. Татур);
- общепедагогического принципа развития непрерывного образования (А. К. Коллегов, Т. Ю. Ломакина, Т. Э. Мангер);

- процесса и результата создания системы непрерывного профессионального образования в разных отраслях (Т. Ю. Полякова, Т. С. Сумская);
- условия профессиональной подготовки (В. М. Ростовцева).

Отметим, что процесс диверсификации затрагивает самые разные уровни сферы образования:

- а) уровень системы принимаемых правительством мер (О. Альборнос);
- б) уровень институциональной системы высшей профессиональной школы (Я. Сэдлак, Ф. Майор);
- в) уровень базового профессионального образования (Т. Ю. Ломакина);
- г) уровень среднего профессионального образования (В. И. Байденко);
- д) уровень высшего профессионального образования (С. Я. Батышев, Е. Л. Кудрина, А. М. Новиков, А. И. Сеселкин, Т. С. Сумская);
- е) уровень образовательных структур и программ (Р. Марлин, Т. Хюсен);
- ж) уровень деятельности учебных заведений (Ф. Д. Альтбах, С. А. Виноградова) [8, с. 6].

Внедрение федеральных государственных образовательных стандартов высшего профессионального образования, ориентированных более на личность, чем на производство, декларирует приоритетным формирование общекультурных, общепрофессиональных и профессиональных компетенций будущего специалиста, включающих умения выдвигать новые идеи, способности к адаптации в новых ситуациях, готовности самостоятельно воспринимать и осваивать новые знания, формы и виды деятельности, новые приемы организации и управления, новые эстетические и культурные ценности.

Основываясь на теории и практике современного образования, под диверсификацией высшего профессионального образования мы понимаем многоуровневую профессиональную подготовку, многофункциональный образовательный процесс, характеризующийся вариативностью и гибкостью образовательных программ, многообразием форм учебной деятельности, активизирующих самостоятельную учебно-познавательную деятельность студентов.

Важной составляющей профессиональной подготовки будущего специалиста в вузе является математическое образование, в процессе которого упорядочивается и совершенствуется творческое начало личности, спонтанное и разнонаправленное по своей природе. Это обусловливается ведущим положением математики среди фундаментальных и прикладных наук, что особенно ярко проявляется в их интенсивной математизации [2, с. 3]. Оценивая значимость математики для подготовки квалифицированных специалистов с учётом требований инновационной экономики, Указом Президента РФ «О мерах по реализации государственной политики в области образования и науки» (2012) постановлено разработать и утвердить в декабре 2013 г. «Концепцию развития математического образования в Российской Федерации» на основе аналитических данных о состоянии математического образования на различных уровнях образования.

Следствием динамических изменений, происходящих в обществе, науке, экономике и политике, становится возникновение в математическом

образовании XXI века новых проблем, требующих поиска новых путей решения. Перечислим некоторые из них:

- обоснование компетентностных моделей математического образования в вузе;
- поиск критериев и показателей уровня сформированности общекультурных и профессиональных компетенций, разработка методик их количественного и качественного оценивания;
- построение содержания математического образования, ориентированного на овладение студентом основами профессиональной деятельности;
- разработка психолого-педагогического обеспечения личностного включения будущего специалиста в учебную математическую деятельность;
- обоснование технологического сопровождения профессионального саморазвития будущего специалиста при овладении системным и междисциплинарным математическим знанием;
- расширение возможностей для активного применения теоретических знаний в решении профессионально-бытовых задач.

Компетентностный подход, выступающий методологической основой современных стандартов профессиональной подготовки, предусматривает изменение содержания, методов, форм и педагогических условий математического образования в вузе в контексте профессионализации и раскрытия социального статуса математической науки. Таким образом, диверсификация высшего профессионального образования, затрагивая все его уровни и составляющие, определяет вектор развития математического образования. Для специалиста теперь недостаточно только теоретических знаний и узко специализированных умений. Главное, чтобы он обладал высокой информационной и управленческой культурой, готовностью к изменению характера и содержания профессиональной деятельности.

Важно отметить, что расширение структуры математического образования в современном вузе, целесообразное развитие у студента умений применять математические знания, методы познания и обработки информации в будущей профессиональной деятельности, оценивать перспективность собственной математической образованности в решении профессиональных задач, предусматривающее вариативность программ, разнообразие форм обучения и индивидуализацию образовательных маршрутов – это, по сути, диверсификация математического образования.

Однако в научных исследованиях вопрос о диверсификации математического образования в современном вузе еще не нашел должного внимания как со стороны педагогов-математиков, так и педагогической науки в целом.

Диверсификация математического образования в вузе видится нами не только в связи с существенной перестройкой учебного процесса, но и с активным использованием при обучении математике информационных технологий, партнерского взаимодействия с отечественными и зарубежными вузами, последних научных достижений.

К основным направлениям диверсификации математического образования в вузе мы относим:

- согласование целей общего, профессионального и математического образования;
- устранение разрыва содержательных связей школьного и вузовского курсов математики;
- обеспечение преемственности в методике обучения математике учащихся старших классов школ и студентов первых курсов вузов;
- ориентированность математических задач на всестороннее развитие интеллектуальных способностей студентов (развитие конвергентных и дивергентных способностей, обучаемости, познавательных стилей);
- предоставление возможности выбора и реализации индивидуальных образовательных маршрутов;
- сообразность формируемых математических, общекультурных, общепрофессиональных и профессиональных компетенций.

Итак, как одно из основных направлений дальнейшего совершенствования математического образования диверсификация обусловлена:

а) во-первых, необходимостью изменения концепции математического образования в Российской Федерации, нашедшей нормативно-правовое подкрепление в Указе Президента РФ «О мерах по реализации государственной политики в области образования и науки» (2012 г.);

б) во-вторых, необходимостью осуществления в методической системе обучения математике двух генеральных функций: профессионального образования с помощью математики и собственно математического образования;

в) в-третьих, повышенными социальными ожиданиями к качеству и эффективности профессиональной деятельности и личности будущего специалиста, имеющего высокий уровень развития интеллектуальных, исследовательских и творческих умений, владеющего универсальными математическими методами познания и обработки информации, ориентированного на самостоятельный поиск и непрерывное пополнение знаний с целью профессионального и личностного совершенствования.

Под диверсификацией математического образования в вузе мы понимаем многообразие форм учебной математической деятельности, инициирующих самостоятельную учебно-познавательную активность студентов в информационном и цифровом пространстве, способствующих расширению места математических идей и методов в мышлении, профессиональной культуре и деятельности будущего специалиста.

Проблема диверсификации математического образования в современном вузе видится нами в необходимости выявления и обоснования теоретико-методологических и технологических основ принципиального изменения учебного процесса, позволяющих готовить специалиста, способного эффективно использовать математические знания и методы в профессиональной деятельности, ориентированного на личностное и профессиональное развитие.

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**ЛЕОНОРА ВИКТОРОВНА БАЧУРИНА, ЕЛЕНА БОРИСОВНА
БЫСТРАЙ / LEONORA BACHURINA, ELENA BYSTRAY**

ПРЕДПОСЫЛКИ СТАНОВЛЕНИЯ И РАЗВИТИЯ ПОНЯТИЙНО- КАТЕГОРИАЛЬНОГО АППАРАТА ПО ПРОБЛЕМЕ ФОРМИРОВАНИЯ ЭТНОХУДОЖЕСТВЕННОЙ КОМПЕТЕНТНОСТИ

PREREQUISITS OF THE ESTABLISHMENT AND EVOLUTION OF CONCEPTS AND CATEGORIES ON THE PROBLEM OF ETHNIC AND ART COMPETENCE FORMATION

Аннотация / Abstract

Любые глобальные проблемы, с которыми сталкивается общество, неизбежно сказываются и на состоянии образования. Именно оно, откликаясь на проблемы социума, способно оказывать существенное влияние на развитие тех или иных тенденций, поддерживать или, напротив, тормозить их, упреждая развитие событий. Сфера образования, несомненно, имеет самое непосредственное отношение к происходящим в мире событиям, в том числе и к тем негативным тенденциям, которые сегодня все более явно дают о себе знать.

Any global problems which society faces inevitably have an influence on the state of education. Exactly it, responding to the problems of society is able to influence significantly the development of tendencies, to support or, opposite, to break them, forestalling the development of events. The sphere of education, undoubtedly, has the most direct attitude towards events happening in the world including those negative tendencies which make themselves know more obviously nowadays.

Человечество вступило в XXI век не только с выдающимися достижениями в науке и технике, литературе и искусстве, обогащенным культурным наследием. События, связанные с международным терроризмом, межнациональными и религиозными распрями, реальной опасностью ядерного взаимоуничтожения, распадом целого ряда многонациональных государств, показали неготовность современного общества к устранению этнических конфликтов, их прогнозированию и управлению ими, обнажили противоречия мировоззренческого характера.

На этом фоне актуальной представляется проблема личностного выбора и самоопределения. Межэтнические проблемы затрагивают каждую отдельную личность, актуализируя вопрос о выборе способа отношения к событиям, происходящим в России, к другим людям и к себе самому. Вхождение человека в многонациональный мир, его продуктивная адаптация в этом мире вызывают необходимость постановки вопроса о педагогическом обеспечении процесса становления и развития этнохудожественной компетентности подрастающего поколения.

В силу своей актуальности, новизны и неизученности проблема формирования этнохудожественной компетентности подрастающего поколения требует расширения, конкретизации и уточнения категориального аппарата и сопряжённых с ним понятий. Остановимся подробно на таких ключевых для нашего исследования понятиях, как культура, этнос, этнокультура, этнохудожественная компетентность [5].

Рассматривая сущностную характеристику понятий «этнос» и «этничность», уточняем, что анализ этнографических, этнологических, этнопсихологических источников наглядно свидетельствует, что как в отечественной, так и в мировой науке до настоящего времени не сложилось общепринятого понимания сущности данных понятий, более того, они порой определяются как полярно противоположные. Как одновременно и рациональные, и иррациональные явления эти понятия сложны по своей сути, и только совокупность взглядов может приблизить представление о них к реальности.

Причина интереса к проблемам этноса и этничности объясняется тем обстоятельством, что этнические отношения стали играть значительную роль в общественной жизни многих государств и народов, поэтому игнорировать их было просто невозможно. Так сама жизнь опровергла господствовавшее с начала XX века в мировом общественном мнении и этнологической науке убеждение, что фактор этничности будет постепенно терять свое значение в жизни людей вследствие процессов модернизации, индустриализации, демократизации развития общества. Историческая практика показывает, что этничность усилила свое влияние в современной социальной, политической и культурной жизни и нередко перерастает в национализм. Остро в настоящее время стоят этнические проблемы во многих странах, в том числе и в республиках бывшего Советского Союза и современной России.

В зависимости от аспекта исследования и методологического подхода в современной отечественной науке представлены различные теории этноса. Это, во-первых, пассионарная теория этноса Л. Н. Гумилева, во-вторых, дуалистическая концепция этноса Ю. В. Бромеля, в-третьих, информационная концепция этноса Н. Н. Чебоксарова и С. А. Арутюнова, наконец, системно-статистическая, или компонентная, теория Г. Е. Маркова и В. В. Пименова.

Пассионарная теория Л. Н. Гумилева представляет этнос как физическую реальность, облаченную в социальную оболочку, а историю человечества как цепь многочисленных этногенезов, причиной которых являются пассионарные толчки - своего рода микромутации, вызывающие появление особо энергичных и деятельных людей - пассионариев, объединенных общими целями и интересами. Истоки этих процессов находятся в биосферных явлениях Земли. В продолжение своего роста и развития этнос проходит несколько стадий от молодости до глубокой старости и смерти, что обусловлено затратами энергии пассионарности [2].

При взаимодействии этносов друг с другом ритмы их пассионарных полей накладываются друг на друга. При этом может возникнуть либо гармония, когда фазы их колебания совпадают, либо дисгармония. В первом случае возможно этническое слияние, ассимиляция, плодотворные этнические контакты; во втором - нарушение ритма одного или обоих полей, что

расшатывает системы связи этносов и при неблагоприятных условиях может привести к гибели участников такого контакта. Так, Л. Н. Гумилев подводит объективную основу под чувство комплиментарности, деления на «своих - чужих», являющегося важнейшей характеристикой этноса.

Информационная теория предложена Н. Н. Чебоксаровым и С. А. Арутюновым, существование всех этнических общностей в ней представлено следующим образом. Любые отношения, в которые вступают люди между собой, сопровождаются потоком информации, которая передается разными путями: в вербальной коммуникации, в форме показа, подражания, а также через культурную традицию народа, его творческое наследие [1].

Информационная модель позволяет объяснить всплески этничности, взглянуть на этнос как на способ удовлетворения потребности людей в определенной психологической стабильности. Исследователи все больше соглашались с тем, что обращение к глубинным этническим ценностям - это защитная реакция человеческой психики на сложность, обезличенность, суетность и неустойчивость современной жизни. Этнос играет роль информационного фильтра, необходимость в котором возникает в связи с усилением в современной жизни психологической потребности в устойчивых жизненных ценностях.

Человек воспринимает мир не как хаотичный поток образов, символов и понятий. Вся информация из внешнего мира проходит через картину мира, представляющую собой систему понятий и символов, достаточно жестко зафиксированную в нашем сознании. Эта схема - картина мира - пропускает только ту информацию, которая предусмотрена ею. Ту информацию, о которой у нас нет представления, для которой нет соответствующего названия, мы просто не замечаем. Весь остальной поток информации структурируется картиной мира: отбрасывается незначительное, с ее точки зрения, фиксируется внимание на важном. Основу картины мира составляют этнические ценности, поэтому значимость информации оценивается с этнических позиций. Таким образом, этничность участвует в отборе информации, сужая спектр допустимых и желаемых реакций человека на ту или иную жизненную ситуацию.

Таким образом, основные положения информационной теории убеждают нас в необходимости формирования этнохудожественной компетентности подрастающего поколения, так как именно в этом возрасте у человека складывается картина мира [3].

Дуалистическая теория, разработанная Ю. В. Бромлеем, исходит из того, что в этносе сочетаются собственно этнические свойства и характеристики: этнический язык, народно-бытовая культура, обрядовая деятельность, этническое самосознание, закрепленное в этнониме - самоназвании этноса; характеристики условий формирования и существования собственно этнических элементов: природно-географо-территориальные, экономико-социальные, государственно-правовые и т. п. [4]. В соответствии с этим делением любой этнос получает двойственную или дуалистическую природу и раскрывается в двух смыслах, узком и широком. В узком смысле - этникос, который включает в себя собственно этнические характеристики; в широком смысле - этносоциальный организм, который представляет собой сочетание

этнических элементов и условий его возникновения и функционирования. Наиболее часто приводимый в литературе пример узкого и широкого смыслов понятия «этнос» - пример украинцев: все украинцы, живущие в мире, - это этникос, а украинцы, проживающие в границах Украины, - это этносоциальный организм.

Формирование этнохудожественной компетентности подростков позволит им осознавать себя как представителями конкретной этнической общности, так и представителями целого этносоциума.

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ЛЮДМИЛА НИКОЛАЕВНА КУРБАТОВА / LUDMILA KURBATOVA

ИНСТИТУЦИОНАЛИЗАЦИЯ ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ КАК СТРАТИФИКАЦИОННОГО МАНИПУЛЯТОРА

EDUCATION INSTITUTIONALIZATION AS A STRATIFICATION MANIPULATOR

Аннотация / Abstract

В статье на примерах институционализации «праздного класса» по Торстейну Веблену, «государственной знати» по Пьеру Бурдьё и «придворных факторов» Генриха Шнее дается анализ формирования российского «привилегированного класса», где основным институциональным признаком выступает образование.

The article explores the formation of Russian privileged class in terms of the conceptions of institutionalization (Thorstein Bunde Veblen's 'leisure class', Heinrich Schnee's 'factor in the court', Pierre Bourdieu's 'state nobility') where education is considered as the main institutional feature.

Ни у кого не вызывает сомнения, что выбор модели образования – это выбор стратегического пути развития общества и государственности. В связи с этим возникает вопрос: почему современная российская элита сделала ставку на прозападную модель образования? Попытаемся разобраться в этой ситуации.

В работах Торстейна Веблена «Теория праздного класса» и Пьера Бурдьё «Государственная знать» раскрывается сущность образования как институционального признака, символизирующего элитарные группы капиталистического общества. Образование выступает «волшебной палочкой», с помощью которой регулируются и закрепляются социальные статусы в обществе [3; 2]. П. Бурдьё отмечает, что «формирование государства идет вместе с формированием *поля власти*, понимаемого как пространство игры, внутри которого владельцы капитала (разных его видов) борются именно за власть над государством, т. е. над государственным капиталом, дающим власть над различными видами капитала и над их воспроизводством (главным образом, через систему образования)» [1, с. 131].

Российская элита не могла избежать этой же участи. Она тоже выделила образование в качестве инструмента социального расслоения и закрепления своего привилегированного статуса.

Я позволю себе назвать этот социальный слой «привилегированным классом».

Российский «привилегированный класс» представляет собой в некотором роде уникальное явление, хотя вписывается во все законы формирования элитарных групп.

Во-первых, это сплав политической номенклатуры и бизнеса. Политическая и экономическая элита в современной России – это в некотором

роде «государственная знать» [10]. Как точно подмечает Бурдьё: «...руководящие сегодня капиталистическими фирмами и правительственными офисами, распоряжаются арсеналом невиданных в истории полномочий и титулов: собственности, образования, наследования. Им не надо выбирать между рождением и заслугами, аскрипцией и достижительностью, наследством и усилиями, аурой традиции и эффективностью модерна, - они могут распоряжаться всем этим» [2]. Таким образом, новоиспеченная российская элита, присвоила себе всю ширь властных полномочий, наделив себя правом «миловать и наказывать» по своему усмотрению и настроению, в соответствии со своими интересами и потребностями. Примером вседозволенности выступает непримиримая позиция власти в отношении образования. Никакие научные и общественные дискуссии не смогли убедить власть в неэффективности предложенной модели образования, ее устаревшей конструкции [7].

Во-вторых, Вебер отмечал, что в каждой структуре господства "привилегированные благодаря наличным политическим, социальным и экономическим порядкам" никогда не довольствуются неприкрытым исполнением своей власти и голым навязыванием своих привилегий. Они скорее хотели бы "видеть свое положение преобразованным из фактических отношений чистой власти в упорядоченную систему приобретенных прав, хотели бы знать, что этим они освящены" [2; 15].

Для этого власть необходимо не только приобрести, ее надо еще и удерживать. Чтобы удерживать, надо создать такие условия, которые закрепят право безграничной власти. Это не просто свод законов. Это закрепление за каждым объектом государственного управления своего стратификационного статуса. «Основательная переделка личности входит в изготовление габитуса доминирования и раскрывает то, как власть исподволь формирует умы и желания изнутри, не меньше, чем путем "грубого принуждения" внешними материальными условиями» [2]. И здесь не обойтись без управления формальным образованием в интересах сохранения власти «привилегированным классом». В любой предвыборной дискуссии основным аргументом всегда выступает – реформа образования [9].

В-третьих, по типу отношения к собственности, выбору сфер экономического влияния, образу жизни, российский «привилегированный класс» демонстрирует культуру крепостного крестьянина, для которого «праздность» воспринималась как образ жизни барина. Жажда облачиться в придворные одежды, примерить на себя «корону российской империи», сверкать самоцветами, «гулять, так гулять», «купаться в брызгах шампанского» – вот тот предел мечтаний, который постоянно присутствует на экранах ТВ, в Интернете на протяжении всего нового времени России. Наши социологические исследования показали, что образ жизни политической и экономической элиты негативно влияет на культуру и мораль общества [12].

В-четвертых, «некоронованным королям» Америки Ротшильду, Рокфеллеру, Форду приписывают два известных высказывания: «Я могу отчитаться за каждый заработанный цент, кроме первого миллиона» и «Любой крупный капитал основан на криминале» [14]. В начале 90-х в одном из своих интервью экономист П. Г. Бунич, перефразировал Маркса, сказал, что

«первичное накопление капитала всегда криминально». Особое место в этой вакханалии, занимала интеллектуальная поросль молодой российской интеллигенции с экономическим и юридическим образованием. В криминальной среде – это уважаемые люди, так как они выполняли роли финансистов и адвокатов, без них криминал просто не смог бы всплыть на вершину политической пирамиды и легализовать свое имя и свои капиталы. Такая спаянность этих противоположных по культуре, но близких по морали социальных групп, позволила молодым реформаторам занять места в политической и экономической иерархии, и стать не просто идеологами этого процесса, они выступили кукловодами и регулировщиками по формированию «привилегированного класса» в России. Их имена всем известны, по сей день, они активно управляют этим турбулентным вихрем, подбрасывая в огонь смирения масс реформы социальной сферы [8]. Особенно активно они разыгрывают карту образования как социального джокера. Иметь не только высшее образование, но и желательно к нему еще присоединить ученую степень, вот тот социальный минимум, который позволит любому смертному добиться успеха в политике и в бизнесе. Воздвигнув образование на пьедестал общественного почета, реформа образования, по западному образцу, создала только иллюзию достижения социально-экономической стабильности. Подготовка в массовом порядке бакалавров – это одно из самых ярких социальных ограничений современного образования.

В-пятых, нашему «привилегированному классу» свойственны качества «придворных факторов», обильно пропитанных российской спецификой. В научном мире и документах «придворными факторами» в XIX и XX веках называли поставщиков и финансистов [13]. Если в Европе и США «большая часть «придворных факторов» возвысилась до старой или новой аристократии или приблизилась к тем кругам, которые в XIX и XX веках стали представлять имущие классы и образование», то для России это явление стало новым в эпоху становления капитализма в конце XX и начале XXI веков. Пребывая в роли «придворного фактора» при политической элите, зарождающаяся в России буржуазия, сориентировала свои экономические и культурные интересы вне России, ее не только породившей, но вскормившей. Сегодня крупный капитал России представляет ТЭК, финансовый сектор и сферу торговли, она выполнила и продолжает выполнять роли «поставщиков и финансистов». За 20 лет она смогла создать вокруг себя замкнутое социальное поле. Чтобы оградить себя от случайных «придворных факторов», она создает заградительный барьер, используя образование как социальный регулятор.

Следует также учитывать, что сегодня, в условиях сформировавшейся политической и экономической элиты, которая «позволяет» своим детям, родственникам «наследовать» не только экономический капитал, но и государственную власть, закрепление неравенства в образовании становится необходимым и важным звеном устойчивых классовых позиций [10]. «Когда увеличилась сумма систематизированных знаний, тут же возникло разделение, которое прослеживается с самого начала истории образования» [3, с. 229].

Как и в случае с европейским «праздным классом», начальный процесс выделения российской элиты из общей социальной среды с помощью формального образования, начинается с принятия ритуальных форм. Более

100 лет назад Веблен выделил ритуальные преклонения как одну из характеристик «праздного класса»: «обряд посвящения и церемония вручения дипломов, а также присуждение ученых степеней, званий и отличий, производимое таким образом, что наводит на мысль о чем-то вроде передачи апостольской благодати» [3, с. 229]. Справедливо здесь заметить, насколько странным кажется для нашей культуры это обрядовое подражание. Создается впечатление не просто театрализации ситуации, это больше похоже на ярмарку тщеславия. Однако это требование к элитарной символике, на которую «молится» современная российская «государственная знать».

Вместе с европейской обрядностью в российское образование постепенно проникла образовательная структура, характерная для Европы. Наше «образование» стало дифференцироваться по элитарным признакам, таким как: а) территориальная принадлежность вуза: центр и периферия; б) качество подготовки: московские и провинциальные вузы; в) востребованные элитарными сегментами рынка труда специальности и массовые профессии; г) диплом о высшем образовании: государственного и негосударственного образца; российского и западноевропейского вуза; д) образование на бюджетной и контрактной основе; е) институциональная структура: школа, техникум, институт и лицей, гимназия, колледж, академия, университет. В новой редакции: федеральные вузы, национально исследовательские университеты, институты; ж) государственные и негосударственные вузы; з) ступенчатая подготовка профессионалов с высшим образованием: бакалавр, специалист, магистр. Это не полный перечень, но он отражает те специфические эффекты, которые выступают атрибутами привилегированности одних социальных групп над другими, с помощью которых, рекрутируется российский элитный слой [4, 5, 6].

Для того чтобы не позволить расширение элитного слоя за счет низших социальных слоев, представители которых могут обладать качественным образованием, хорошо развитыми мобильными способностями, установками на социальную и профессиональную карьеру, формальное образование наделяется жестко ограниченными требованиями в виде «компетентностного ценза». Формируется «зомби-личность», с заранее заданными социальными и профессиональными параметрами. Для устойчивости сформированной социальной структуры разрабатывается соответствующий Закон «Об образовании».

В соответствии с характером социальной сущности «привилегированного класса» можно выделить три типа образованных конструкций, которые институционализируют элитарность в обществе.

Элитарное образование – оно характеризуется наличием диплома о высшем образовании элитного Европейского или Американского вуза, специализация значения не имеет. Хотя представители этой группы для себя и своих детей чаще всего выбирают экономику и юриспруденцию, бизнес и менеджмент. Как это созвучно с Вебленом: «Наиболее частые экскурсии в области, отличные от классической, совершаются членами праздного класса в предмет юриспруденции, а также политических наук, особенно же управленческих» [3, с. 234]. И насколько точно определяет роль элитного диплома Бурдьё: «получение элитного диплома является не столько "ритуалом

допуска", по Ван Геннепу, столько *ритуалом института*: оно не столько отделяет "прежде" от "потом", сколько поднимает вверх тех, кому назначено занимать видные общественные позиции, и отделяет их от тех, кем они будут править» [2]. Как созвучно с выделением элитарного образования мнение Бурдьё: «Именно здесь и нужно рассмотреть *систему* элитных учреждений высшего образования. В обществах, характеризующихся соприсутствием и соперничеством разных форм власти, во все большей мере, полагающихся на конвертирование в "верительные грамоты" как средство увековечить себя, эта система не только гарантирует предпочтительный и быстрый допуск к командным позициям сыновьям предков» [2].

Обслуживающее образование – на него ориентируются те члены российского общества, которые хотели бы приобщиться к «лику святых российской политики и экономики», здесь предпочтения отдаются высшему образованию в сфере экономики, права, менеджмента и, выделенное в «особое производство» – государственно-муниципальное управление. Из них пополняются ряды «придворных слуг». В определенной степени они могут выполнять функции «придворных факторов», но эти функции не могут превышать допустимого предела социального статуса личности «исполнителя», закреплённого сложившейся элитарной структурой. В то же время именно из этой группы могут выделяться фавориты власти, на которых делает ставку «привилегированный класс». Так формируется резерв управленцев, которые наделяются полномочиями государственных служащих. Однако максимум вертикальной карьеры личности с таким образованием – это средний уровень менеджмента организации.

Прикладное образование – на рынке «образовательных услуг» для массового потребителя представляется перечнем направлений и специальностей, которые позволяют «привилегированному классу» за счет этой рабочей силы обеспечить себе условия выживания. Это та рабочая сила, которая требуется «привилегированному классу» для реализации его экономических интересов, включая и те области наук, которые легче всего поддаются коммерциализации. Для более успешного функционирования таких вузов и научных центров подбор руководителей приобретает специфический характер, что в свое время отмечал Веблен: «Наибольшим одобрением пользуются те руководители, которые сочетают в себе выполнение священнической функции с проявлением больших способностей на денежном поприще. Подобная, но менее ярко выраженная тенденция – вверять дело высшего образования людям какой-нибудь денежной профессии» [3, с. 232]. В российском случае, например, управление инновационным центром Сколково отчужденно в пользу В. Вексельберга, Госкорпорацией РОСНАНО (в настоящее время ОАО) – А. Чубайса, НИУ ВШЭ – Е. Г. Ясину (в 1994 г. – Министр экономики РФ, с 1998 г. – научный руководитель ВШЭ).

Давая свободу выбора образования, «привилегированный класс» оставляет за собой право управлять прикладным знанием, формой обучения, стратегией воспитания. В «Юном принце» Антуан де Сент-Экзюпери в диалоге героев раскрывает сущность мнимой свободы: "- Страна свободна, и ты ни у кого не в рабстве, - заметил юный Король. - На войне, - отвечал ткач, - сильные делают слабых рабами, а в мирное время богатые порабащают бедных... На нас цепи,

хотя ни один глаз не видит их, и мы рабы, хотя люди называют нас свободными" [11].

Российский «привилегированный класс», так же как его соратники из «праздного класса» и «государственной знати», пытаются сгладить антагонистические противоречия классов, выбрав в качестве «подушки безопасности» - средний класс. Именно средний класс наделяется неким ореолом значимости, где одним из важных показателей принадлежности к этой группе, является наличие высшего образования. Диплом представляет собой «визитную карточку» или, как подметил Р. Коллинз – «верительную грамоту», не только на рынке труда, но и в других областях жизни человека: социальной иерархии, семейном положении, выборе образования для детей.

Выделяя в социально стратификационной структуре средний класс, идеологи капитализма тем самым пытаются перенести конфликт классов в область конфликта статусов. Именно об этом говорит Веблен: «Образ мысли, характеризующий жизнь праздного класса, постоянно вращается вокруг личного господства и завистнического представления о чести, достоинстве, заслугах, статусе и обо всем, что с ним связано» [3].

На первый взгляд, парадокс сегодняшнего дня заключается в том, что «привилегированный класс» в России за короткий, по историческим нормам институционализации, промежуток времени сформировался. Однако «институты – это результат процессов, происходивших в прошлом, они приспособлены к обстоятельствам прошлого и, следовательно, не находятся в полном согласии с требованиями настоящего времени» [3, с. 16]. Поэтому в реальности современный российский «привилегирован класс» прошел длительный путь институционализации, который отразил в себе: а) барскую праздную культуру через сознание крепостного крестьянина; б) «становление института частной собственности: «начальную стадию собственности», связанную с «приобретением путем захвата и обращения в свою пользу» [3]; в) организацию «современного правящего класса, опыт исторического состояния разделения труда между материальным (экономическим) и символическим (культурным) капиталом, его наложение на поле элитных школ, разъединяющее и переплетающее обоих, что характерно для всех передовых обществ» [2]; г) сложившиеся в России типы межличностных отношений как по социальной горизонтали, так и по вертикали власти, т. е. «взаимосвязь между двором, государством и факторами покоилась на разветвленной сети личных отношений, но не представляет собой ни государственную, ни экономическую систему» [13].

Таким образом, российский «привилегированный класс» впитал в себя признаки «праздного класса», обеспеченные статусом «государственной знати», закрепленные образованием, достойным «придворных факторов».

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ОКСАНА ИВАНОВНА СТРИХАР / OKSANA STRIKHAR

КОНЦЕПЦИЯ ОБУЧЕНИЯ МУЗЫКАЛЬНОМУ ИСКУССТВУ НА ОСНОВЕ ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЯ НА УРОКАХ МЕЖНАУЧНЫХ СВЯЗЕЙ

THE CONCEPT OF TEACHING MUSICAL ART ON THE BASIS OF USING INTERSCIENTIFIC CONNECTIONS AT THE LESSONS

Аннотация / Abstract

В статье рассматривается такая категория как межнаучные связи, которая взаимосвязана с интегративным подходом в образовании, и ее использование на уроках по обучению музыкальному искусству.

The article deals with such category as interscientific connections, that is related to the integrative approach in education, and describes its usage in the classroom to teach the art of music.

Введение

Раскрытие содержания школьного предмета «Музыкальное искусство» в ходе профессиональной подготовки учителей основано на произведениях музыкального искусства. А произведения эти очень часто в той или иной степени взаимосвязаны с другими видами искусства: литературой, изобразительным искусством, театром, архитектурой, кино и др. Достаточно вспомнить музыкальные произведения, носящие характер программности: «Времена года» А. Вивальди, «Сонеты Петрарки» Ф. Листа, «Карнавал животных» К. Сен-Санса, «Картинки с выставки» М. П. Мусоргского, «Детский альбом» П. И. Чайковского, «В Средней Азии» М. А. Балакирева, «Кремль» А. В. Глазунова, симфония № 1 В. А. Калинникова, «Время, вперед!» Г. В. Свиридова и др. Аналогичные мотивы можно проследить и в музыке вокальной (в песнях, романсах, кантатах, ораториях и др.), а именно: синтез музыки и литературного текста. В свою очередь, поэзия во многом основывается на многих законах развития музыкального жанра.

В искусствоведении есть достаточное количество современных ученых, которые рассматривали связь музыки с различными видами искусства: Архимович Л., Бенч-Шокало А., Дзюба И., Зязюн И., Миропольская Н., Хлебникова Л., Горбенко С. [4].

Анализ концепции обучения музыкальному искусству

Если проанализировать культурное наследие предшествующих исторических эпох, то можно обратить внимание на безусловный факт того, что наиболее значимых успехов в творчестве добились именно те гении, чей талант был разносторонним, энциклопедическим, интегративным по своей сути. К таким можно отнести имена Аристотеля, Бозция, Леонардо да Винчи, Микеланджело, Уильяма Шекспира, М. В. Ломоносова, Ж.-Ж. Руссо, Э. Т. А. Гофмана, А. П. Бородин, С. П. Дягилева, Дж. Гершвина, Ф. И. Шаляпин, Ч. С. Чаплина, В. В. Маяковского и многих других.

В связи с этим сначала, стоит осмыслить такую категорию, как межпредметные связи, которые взаимосвязаны с интегративным подходом в образовании. Необходимо добавить следующее: «Особенности межпредметных связей в *предметах гуманитарного цикла* определяются общими *целями* гуманитарного образования, которые направлены на идейно-нравственное и эстетическое воспитание учащихся; общим *объектом* изучения, которого является человек, его деятельность в обществе; *спецификой* видов знаний (научных, художественных и др.), отраженных в содержании гуманитарных предметов, и видов деятельности (познавательная, языковая, художественная, образительная, музыкальная и др.), в которые включаются учащиеся при изучении» [5].

Известно, что познание мира, целостной его картины также издавна носило синкретический характер (от греч. *Sincretismos* - нерасчлененность, соединение): будь то научное, религиозное, практическое (трудовое) или эстетическое познание.

Дискуссия

Музыка сегодня настолько глубоко проникла во все сферы жизнедеятельности людей, что должна занимать более значительное место в образовательном процессе. Поэтому в современных условиях преподавания предмета «Музыкальное искусство» предусматривает (все чаще подкрепляется педагогической практикой) выход даже за рамки школьного образования, т.е. предметы базисного, школьного и регионального компонента. Поэтому логично термин «межпредметные связи» в контексте нашего исследования заменить категорию «межнаучные связи».

Наиболее важными нам представляются связи с дисциплинами, представляющими музыковедение, или межнаучные связи первого вида. Проведения уроков музыки непосредственно опирается на знания из следующих сфер музыковедения:

- теория музыки (элементарная музыкальная грамота, т.е. овладения базовым для общеобразовательной школы понятийно-категориальным и символично-графическим аппаратом, музыкальным тезаурусом);
- история музыки (факты из биографии выдающихся музыкантов, история создания музыкальных произведений, история музыкальных стилей и жанров и др.);
- сольфеджио (применение знаний из этой области музыковедения);
- гармония (ее основы просто необходимы для адекватной оценки учащимися настоящей красоты и колорита музыкальных произведений и др.);
- полифония (как продолжение знаний по гармонии, логично учащимся иметь хотя бы элементарные представления о многоголосье);
- дирижирование (понимание детьми важнейших жестов и схем с дирижерской практики, для педагога-музыканта умение дирижировать является обязательным);
- инструментоведение (история возникновения музыкальных инструментов, их тембровые и конструкционные особенности, их

- практическое применение и различное сочетание в условиях ансамбля и оркестра);
- анализ музыкальных форм (пространственно-временное ориентирование учащихся в архитектонике музыкальных произведений через постепенное накопление);
 - аранжировка (выполнение несложных вокально-хоровых, инструментальных и вокально-инструментальных обработок);
 - музыкальная фольклористика (понимание учащимися важнейших особенностей народной музыки);
 - методика обучения игре на музыкальных инструментах (в начальной школе, как правило, применяется методика игры на так называемых «детских» инструментах - примитивных ударных, струнных, клавишных и духовых инструментах; в проведении уроков музыки может также использоваться выполнения детьми музыки на таких инструментах, как - фортепиано, баян, скрипка, флейта, балалайка и др., игре на которых учится ряд учеников практически в каждом классе, что же касается педагога, то владение музыкальными инструментами для него просто необходимо);
 - музыкальная психология (отдельные категории, приемы, средства мониторинга из этой области знаний необходимо знать современному школьнику - естественно, по мере его научной эрудиции);
 - музыкальная педагогика (очевидно, наступил тот этап в развитии педагогики, когда ученик вправе знать и осознавать некоторые учительские «секреты»: поэтому творчеством можно назвать и проведение части урока, или даже целого урока отдельными учащимися, имеющие к тому необходимые задатки).

К межнаучным связям второго вида на уроках музыки можно отнести связь музыки с предметами и дисциплинами Базисного (инвариантная часть), школьного и регионального компонентов общего среднего образования.

Традиционно богаты и разнообразны межнаучные связи музыки с предметами, представляющими Базовый компонент образования. Это прослеживается по таким школьным предметам из образовательной сферы «Естественнонаучные», как:

1. Физика (она «представлена» в музыке уже самим звуком, как физическим явлением, что составляет основу акустики; другая сфера столкновения с физикой - механика - помогает адекватности восприятия таких понятий в музыке, как колебания, обертоны, музыкальный инструмент, звукозапись и др.; в современных условиях существования музыкального искусства уже немыслимо без достижения такого раздела физики, как электричество, поэтому ученики должны обладать хотя бы минимальной полезной информацией и в данном ракурсе);

2. Химия (биохимические процессы в организмах во время выполнения или слушание музыки);

3. Биология (знания по этой дисциплине помогают реально воспринимать происходящие в организме человека, при слушании или исполнении музыки).

Образовательная сфера «Математика» - важнейшее звено межнаучных связей музыки Второго вида на уроках, поскольку позволяет ученикам

успешно адаптировать фундаментальные общенаучные понятия применительно к явлениям искусства. К таковым можно отнести: темп, ритм, размер, длительности нот и пауз, высоту, т.е. в конечном итоге, пространственно-временные категории по арифметике, алгебре и геометрии.

Разнообразные межнаучные связи у Предмета «Музыкальное искусство» проявляются и с дисциплинами образовательной сферы «Филология». Среди них следующие:

1. Родной язык (насколько ученик владеет богатством и разнообразием родного языка - как в устной речи, так и в письменном изложении - зависит во многом и взаимопонимания на других «этажах» образования, к которым относится и предмет «Музыкальное искусство»);

2. Литература (этот предмет (а в целом, и вид искусства) «приучает» тех, кого учат, к алгоритму освоения национальных и общечеловеческих духовных ценностей, подготавливая, таким образом, почву для успешного изучения музыки);

3. Иностранные языки (музыка, будучи достижением культуры общемирового масштаба, несет в своих «генах» черты многих народов мира, их национально-семантические признаки; поэтому учащимся на уроках музыки необходимо получать знания, навыки и умения из сферы иностранных языков, как латинский, греческий, итальянский, английский, французский, немецкий – то есть языков, национальная культура которых, составляет неотъемлемую часть общей мировой культуры) [2].

Насыщенность образовательной сферы «Обществоведение» позволяет учителю музыки широко применять и использовать на своих уроках аргументы и факты, гипотезы и законы, социальная направленность которых отвечает и важнейшей функции музыкального искусства - ее социальной сущности. В этом аспекте на уроках музыки в современных условиях мы прослеживаем вполне определенные межнаучные связи со следующими предметами:

1. История (межнаучные связи музыки с историей благотворно влияют на формирование целостной картины мира в сознании учащихся, позволяют адекватно оценить роль и место отечественной музыки в мировой музыкальной культуре);

2. Обществознание (невозможно «замалчивать» - независимо от возрастной степени обучаемых, - такие категории из этой образовательной области, как человек - ее возможности и способности, личность, авторитет, экономика, общество, социальные изменения, бизнес, этнос, нации, менталитет, семья, субкультура, права и обязанности, ответственность, авторское право, гражданин, духовная культура и др.);

3. География (учителю музыки логично, уместно и научно обосновано регулярно использовать такие важнейшие элементы по географии, которыми являются: народ, язык, население, местность, регион, страна, континент, климат, природа, стихия, феномен, план, карта, окружающая среда, ресурсы, экология, ноосфера и др.).

Вполне естественно, что предмет «Музыкальное искусство» не может преподаваться отдельно от информационно-эмоционального пространства образовательной сферы «Искусство» (к которой и сам принадлежит). Сегодня

в эту сферу в отечественной педагогике входят такие предметы - «Изобразительное искусство» и «Музыкальное искусство» (остальные - театр, народные промыслы, хореография и др. - дисциплины из области «Искусство» могут включаться или не включаются в состав Школьного компонента). Родство всех видов искусства, единство их целей и задач определяют широкий спектр межнаучных связей музыки и изобразительного искусства. Это родство проявляется как на уровне фундаментальных эстетических категорий (художественный образ, эмоциональность, жанр, стиль, творчество, изображение, воображение, фантазия, композиция и др.), так и в плане детального освоения отдельных произведений (форма, содержание, колорит, тембр, замысел, автор, нюансы и др.).

Предметы Школьного (вариативного) компонента - это еще одна составляющая в межнаучных связях музыки Второго вида. Сегодня каждая школа вправе решать самостоятельно, какие предметы, и в каком объеме включать в этот компонент образования. Так появляются (в каждом городе и регионе, наряду с гимназиями и лицеями) своеобразные неофициальные типы школ - с математическим уклоном, с гуманитарным уклоном, с уклоном на изучение иностранных языков, с техническим уклоном, со спортивным уклоном и т. д. Поэтому мы приводим лишь примерный перечень таких дисциплин:

1. Эстетика (сравнивая прекрасное и безобразное, возвышенное и низменное, настоящее и лживое, идеальное и обычное, вечное и преходящее, сравнивая духовные ценности различных эпох и поколений на уроках музыки, споря о вкусах и формируя их, мы тем самым подвигаем обучаемых, к познанию Вечной Истины) [3];

2. Этика (изучение музыки в морально-этическом аспекте всегда заставляет обучаемых, острее и тоньше чувствовать, учит их сопереживать, дарит радость от соприкосновения с настоящим творчеством, направляет их энергию на путь самосовершенствования личности);

3. Экология (влияет сегодня и на другие сферы жизни и деятельности людей: в частности, на музыкальную культуру, это проявляется в таких неоспоримых фактах, которые просто нельзя игнорировать на уроках музыки, как: окружающая среда - не только материальная, но и духовная субстанция, природные ресурсы - в том числе, и духовный мир человека, человек как экологическая система - с его богатым внутренним миром, идеями и чувствами и др.);

4. Мировая художественная культура (являя собой в основе интегрированный курс, мировая художественная культура является как бы логическим продолжением предмета «Музыкальное искусство»; естественно, что в этих двух дисциплин во многом совпадает тезаурус и объект - воспитание гармонично развитого поколения);

5. Риторика (умение ясно, четко, понятно, эмоционально и красиво излагать свои мысли);

6. Психология (умение учителя музыки адекватно оперировать такими категориями психологии, как: анализ, синтез, стереотип, моделирование, прогноз, воля, память, подсознание, черты характера, типа личности, эмоциональные состояния и др. - помогают с наибольшим эффектом

раскрыться богатству искусства музыки перед сознанием обучаемых; важно при изучении музыки в современных социально-педагогических условиях применения таких приемов и методов психологии, как: анкетирование, тестирование, рейтинг, мониторинг, диагностика и др.);

7. История религий (поскольку музыка является составной частью практически в любой религии, учащихся необходимо знакомить с их основами, которые не противоречат гражданским и общественным устоям);

8. Ритмика (на уроках музыки учащиеся должны овладевать достаточными знаниями и навыками, которые являются универсальными для обеих дисциплин, это - позиция, манера, партнер, пластика, мимика, жест, костюм, творческий замысел, раскованность, грациозность, вариационность и др.);

9. Информатика (школьникам просто необходимо хотя бы иметь представление о компьютере, компьютерных технологиях, синтезаторах, сэмплерах, возможностях интернета и др.).

И, наконец, третья группа предметов, относящаяся к межнаучным связям музыки Второго вида - это дисциплины Регионального (государственного) компонента. Перечень этих дисциплин устанавливается каждой школой в индивидуальном порядке. Мы приводим ниже примерный перечень таких предметов:

1. Краеведение - посвященное местной истории и культуре, в их числе может быть - «Музыкальная культура родного края», где в интеграционном ключе раскрывается богатство и неповторимые особенности в творчестве местных композиторов и исполнителей;

2. Правознание (охрана авторских прав на музыкальные произведения).

К межнаучным связям третьего вида мы относим взаимосвязи предмета «Музыкальное искусство» со сферой научного образования в вузах, научно-исследовательских институтах, экспериментальных лабораториях и т. д. Сразу же необходимо оговориться, что наша градация наук носит условный характер, т.е. не имеет законченный вид, поскольку научные интеграционные процессы (Высшая школа) еще только начинают всерьез (на научной, мировоззренческой основе) рассматриваться в сфере «проекции» на школьную педагогику (среднее образование).

Научная сфера «Естественные науки» - кроме представленных в школе физики, химии и биологии - сегодня в музыкальном искусстве (творчестве, исполнительской практике и слушании) сравнима со многими своими «внешкольными» компонентами. Таковыми как:

1. Логика (последовательность и ясность изложения мысли - своей или чужой - более необходимо на уроках музыки, поскольку мир эмоций и чувств объяснить гораздо сложнее, чем язык чисел, букв и формул);

2. Генетика (учителя и ученики, к сожалению, не всегда с научной точки зрения осознают такие немаловажные аспекты музыкального искусства, как способности, склонности, талант, творчество, часто сводя их в ранг «божественной обусловленности», то есть чего-то «запредельного», хотя этому есть вполне научное толкование, вопросами которого как раз и занимается данная отрасль науки);

3. Бионика (сущность бытия в той или иной жизненной форме часто бывает размерная Красоте в ее человеческом понимании, но мы часто

недооцениваем это богатство природного разнообразия, а потому не в полной мере оцениваем реальное назначение Homo Sapiens в естественном обществе, хотя Природа нам часто указывает пути к самосовершенствованию и прогрессу - в том числе, и в сфере культуры, и искусства);

4. Этнография (в преподавании музыки учителю приходится «погружаться» в музыку других стран и народов, поэтому ему - как и его ученикам - необходимо знать местности пребывания, языка и вероисповедания);

5. Физиология (информация такого рода, как показывает педагогическая практика, позволяет учащимся наиболее полно и адекватно воспринимать происходящие в их «микрокосме»).

Научная сфера «Общественные науки» - кроме представленных в школе истории, обществознания и географии, - в современном понимании музыки немыслима без таких научных отраслей, как:

1. Философия (обеспечить в первую очередь подрастающее поколение методом выработки в своем сознании картины мира);

2. Социология (понятие «социум», «демократия», «субкультура», «социальная группа», «социальная ориентация», «массовая культура» и др. все глубже входят в самосознание личности современного человека);

3. Экономика (современные рыночные отношения в производстве не могут обойти стороной и сферу искусства, даже сферу музыкальной педагогики, поэтому знакомство обучаемых, на уроках музыки с такими понятиями, как менеджмент, спонсорство, меценатство, капитал, доход, рейтинг и др. необходимо проводить на высоком профессиональном уровне);

4. Правоведение (законодательные акты государства и ООН по вопросам музыкального искусства, охрана авторских прав, права и обязанности учащихся и т.д.);

5. Статистика (ознакомление с результатами социологических исследований по восприятию школьниками искусства; учащиеся должны в надлежащих пределах иметь представление об основных методах статистического исследования) и др.

Наконец, существует научная сфера знаний «Гуманитарные науки», имеющая целый ряд межнаучных связей со школьным предметом «Музыкальное искусство». В числе таких наук следующие - «Культурология», «История мировых цивилизаций», «Искусствоведение», «Библиотечковедение», «Музееведение», «Теология» и др. Мировоззренческий характер, свойственный данным наукам, всегда был присущ опытным педагогам-практикам. Однако, в современных условиях преподавания музыки просто немыслимо без подлинно научного, диалектического мышления, как учителей, так и учеников. Оно базируется на следующих основных категориях, является предметом перечисленных сфер научного знания, как: «культура» (трактовок которой существует более 500), «духовность», «духовные ценности», «цивилизация», «прогресс», «гуманизм», «искусство», «классификация искусств», «творчество» и др.

Проведя анализ межнаучных связей музыки как школьного предмета, следует иметь в виду, что эти связи - не простое механическое стирание граней между отдельными дисциплинами и науками в рамках одного урока

(например, урока музыки). «...Интенсивные процессы взаимопроникновения и интеграции наук не должны привести к стиранию или ослаблению их специфики, поскольку у каждой науки остается, и должен оставаться присущий только ей предмет исследования» [1].

Заключение

Резюмируя можно отметить, что на сегодняшний день в педагогике накопилось ценное наследие по теории и практики межнаучных связей как основы педагогической интеграции. Этот процесс выразился в таких тенденциях, как обоснование с позиции философии, науковедения, психологии, педагогики и методики обучения *объективной необходимости отражения* в учебном процессе реальных взаимосвязей объектов и явлений природы, общества и культуры (т. е. материальной и духовной сферы жизни людей). Тем самым, представляется необходимым рассмотрение вопроса о сущности интеграции в сфере современной музыкальной педагогики, о ее различной трактовке в процессе овладения специалистами (учителей музыки) профессиональными навыками.

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ЭВЕЛИНА ПАВЛОВНА ПЕЧЕРСКАЯ / EVELINA PECHERSKAYA

**КЛЮЧЕВЫЕ СТРАТЕГИЧЕСКИЕ ПРИОРИТЕТЫ РАЗВИТИЯ
СИСТЕМЫ ДОПОЛНИТЕЛЬНОГО ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОГО
ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ ЭКОНОМИЧЕСКОГО УНИВЕРСИТЕТА.
РЕГИОНАЛЬНЫЙ АСПЕКТ**

**THE KEY STRATEGIC PRIORITIES OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE
ADDITIONAL PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION AT THE ECONOMIC
UNIVERSITY. REGIONAL ASPECT**

Аннотация / Abstract

В работе рассматриваются приоритетные направления развития системы дополнительного профессионального образования регионального экономического вуза в соответствии с требованиями бизнес-сообщества в эпоху глобализации.

This article describes key directions of the development of the additional professional education at a regional economic university in accordance with the requirements of the business community in the age of globalization.

В стратегии социально-экономического развития Российской Федерации до 2020 года поставлена задача перевода экономики страны на инновационный путь развития, выведения ее на траекторию быстрого и устойчивого роста на передовой технологической основе. В настоящее время современное, качественное образование напрямую способствует построению общества с высокоразвитой экономикой. Кадры являются важнейшим интеллектуальным и профессиональным ресурсом, обеспечивающим социально-экономическое развитие страны, региона, предприятия. В настоящее время все развитые государства мира реализуют программы формирования систем непрерывного образования (обучения на протяжении всей жизни – lifelong learning). Ведущие страны Евросоюза смогли обеспечить массовое участие взрослого населения в программах и тренингах по профессиональной переподготовке. Доля активного населения развитых европейских стран, участвующего в непрерывном образовании достигает 60-70%. В Российской Федерации доля экономически активного населения, участвующего в непрерывном образовании, в настоящее время не превышает 22,4%. В этой связи, Указ Президента РФ от 7 мая 2012 г. «О мерах по реализации государственной политики в области образования и науки и подготовки квалифицированных специалистов с учетом требований инновационной экономики» постановляет увеличить к 2015 г. долю занятого населения в возрасте 25-65 лет, прошедших повышение квалификации или профессиональную подготовку, в общей численности занятого в области экономики населения этой возрастной группы до 37%.

В Самарской области разработана областная целевая программа развития инновационной деятельности на 2008-2015 годы (Закон Самарской области от 12.12.2007. №154-ГД), в которой значительное внимание уделено проблеме повышения квалификации и переподготовки специалистов, крайне

необходимых для повышения инвестиционной привлекательности и конкурентоспособности Самарского региона.

Для успешной деятельности организаций требуются высококвалифицированные специалисты, такие как: топ-менеджеры, менеджеры по управлению инновационными и венчурными проектами, специалисты по освоению новой техники и технологий, руководители малого и среднего бизнеса, специалисты в сфере антикризисного управления, юристы, социологи, экологи, логисты, специалисты в области государственного и муниципального управления, IT-специалисты в области информационной безопасности и многие другие.

В условиях возрастающего динамизма и неопределенности постиндустриального общества спрос на образовательные услуги в сфере бизнеса и менеджмента стал постоянно расти. Бизнес предъявляет все возрастающий спрос на образовательные услуги, которые обеспечивают ему подготовку высококвалифицированных управленческих кадров, соответствующих новым требованиям рынка. По мере того, как ускоряется распространение производственных новаций, расширяется и круг новых управленческих подходов, найденных и апробированных в передовых хозяйственных структурах, возрастает потребность в их применении. Поворот к непрерывному образованию проявляется все более отчетливо, специалисты вновь и вновь приходят в организации, способные помочь им обновить их знания в области экономики и управления.

Для удовлетворения потребностей экономики Самарской области в таких специалистах происходит постоянное обновление и совершенствование региональной системы дополнительного профессионального образования и самую активную роль в этом процессе играет ФГБОУ ВПО «Самарский государственный экономический университет», который более 25 лет занимается подготовкой кадров в области экономики, менеджмента и права, является активным членом Российской Ассоциации Бизнес-образования и постоянным участником Президентской программы подготовки управленческих кадров. Университет, имея значительный опыт переподготовки и повышения квалификации специалистов по инновационным и опережающим программам, обладает значительным кадровым, научным, методическим и программно-техническим потенциалом и вносит значительный вклад в решение проблемы развития региональной системы дополнительного профессионального образования.

В Университете постоянно проводится активная работа по расширению спектра реализуемых программ в сфере дополнительного профессионального образования по запросам федеральных и региональных бизнес-структур. На конец 2012 года количество реализованных программ в сфере бизнес-образования превышает 85, ежегодно более 2000 слушателей проходят дополнительное профессиональное обучение, что дает возможность университету получать дополнительный доход более 50 000 000 рублей.

Обеспечение конкурентоспособности Самарской области в долгосрочной перспективе потребует не только значительного повышения эффективности традиционных отраслей экономики, но и опережающего развития экономики знаний и сервисов. В рамках решения этой крупной задачи Университет

должен обеспечить формирование новой постиндустриальной элиты, представители которой будут владеть необходимой для новой экономики комбинацией научных, управленческих и социально-культурных компетенций и станут лидерами инновационных преобразований.

Ключевым условием повышения производительности труда и перевода экономики на рельсы инновационного развития является наличие корпуса эффективных управленцев, между тем качество подготовки и переподготовки менеджеров и экономистов в регионе не полностью отвечает современным требованиям. Для решения этой проблемы в рамках Университета будет создана Высшая школа менеджмента международного уровня, которая вместе с уже существующей Высшей школой международного бизнеса обеспечит решение данной проблемы.

Будучи расположенным на пересечении международных транспортных путей, Поволжье обладает уникальным транзитным потенциалом. Однако вследствие низкого уровня развития логистической системы, которая призвана оптимизировать издержки и рационализировать производственный процесс, сбыт и сопутствующий сервис, возможности в этой области практически не используются.

Деятельность Университета, связанная с реализацией транзитного потенциала региона, будет осуществляться по трем взаимосвязанным направлениям: экспертное и аналитическое сопровождение экономической политики округа, направленной на планирование, управление и контроль над движением материальных, информационных и финансовых ресурсов; развитие экспертного взаимодействия между государствами, заинтересованными в развитии транспортных коридоров в регионе; подготовка специалистов в области инфраструктуры товарных потоков. В связи с этим на базе Университета будут развернуты исследовательские и образовательные программы по торговой политике и логистике, налажено системное взаимодействие экспертных сообществ из стран, являющихся перспективными торговыми партнерами ПФО.

Усиление международных связей Поволжского региона, его выход на рынки Европы, Центральной Азии также потребуют активной роли Университета, прежде всего как центра компетенций и экспертизы. Развитие отношений с этими регионами мира будет подкреплено серьезными исследованиями в области культуры, политики и экономики западных и восточных стран, постоянным взаимодействием с их элитами.

Важной областью социологических исследований, являющихся основой для выбора новых программ в сфере непрерывного образования, станет проблематика миграции и адаптации мигрантов. С этим направлением деятельности будет связана реализация Университетом образовательных и исследовательских программ в области межэтнических и межконфессиональных отношений, межкультурного взаимодействия, истории России, формирования толерантной поликультурной среды в студенческой среде Университета, который должен стать базой для формирования общих ценностей и установок представителей этнонациональных групп, включая элитные слои, которые будут проходить подготовку и переподготовку в Университете.

В связи с этим решение основных задач стратегии развития дополнительного профессионального образования ФГБОУ ВПО «СГЭУ»

должно быть направлено на модернизацию структуры, содержания и технологии реализации программ непрерывного дополнительного образования с учетом потребностей регионального рынка труда, программ перспективного развития региона, уровня базового образования целевой аудитории, и загруженности слушателей по основному месту работы или учебы.

В настоящее время к дополнительному профессиональному образованию можно отнести:

- дополнительное высшее образование (длительность обучения – свыше 1000 часов, диплом о присвоении квалификации);
- профессиональную переподготовку (длительность обучения – 502-1000 часов, диплом о профессиональной переподготовке);
- повышение квалификации (длительность обучения – 72-100 часов или 102-500 часов, удостоверение или свидетельство о повышении квалификации);
- стажировку специалистов;
- сертификацию квалификаций, в том числе полученных путем самообразования.

В последнее десятилетие предпринят ряд шагов по содержательной модернизации дополнительного профессионального образования, по интеграции российского профессионального образования в международное образовательное пространство, в первую очередь, речь идет о повышении гибкости программ дополнительного профессионального образования и о большей самостоятельности образовательных учреждений. В тоже время очевидна и тенденция расширения конкуренции между традиционными организациями профессионального образования, предлагающими услуги в секторе повышения квалификации и переподготовки, и новыми системами корпоративной подготовки кадров: корпоративными университетами, тренинговыми компаниями и т. д.

Как показывают проведенные нами исследования, 66% региональных работодателей предпочитают доучивать и переучивать своих работников на базе собственных образовательных подразделений. В целом такое положение отвечает мировой тенденции повышения роли внутрифирменной подготовки специалистов и приводит к более тесной связи профессионального образования с субъектами спроса на рынке труда, способствует усилению взаимодействия образовательных учреждений с системами корпоративного обучения. Примером такого взаимодействия может стать все расширяющиеся связи ФГБОУ ВПО «СГЭУ» с Поволжским Банком ОАО «Сбербанк России» по различным программам обучения сотрудников компании.

Самарский государственный экономический университет обладает уникальным набором характеристик:

- наличие более чем 80-летней успешной образовательной деятельности;
- присутствие узнаваемого бренда экономического университета, облегчающего его продвижение на мировые рынки образовательных услуг и труда;
- потенциал ФГБОУ ВПО «СГЭУ», как центра подготовки специалистов в области экономики, управления и права, позволяющий с умеренными издержками организовать качественную подготовку и переподготовку специалистов по юридическим, экономическим и бизнес-специальностям;

- налажен обмен идеями и лучшими практиками, основанный на использовании потенциала других вузов для реализации исследовательских и инновационных программ непрерывно образования;
- тесное сотрудничество и развитые связи с российскими и мировыми академическими образовательными структурами как основа развития широкого сетевого взаимодействия с ведущими научными центрами и бизнес-школами;
- Самарский государственный экономический университет является безусловным лидером Самарской области на рынке дополнительного профессионального образования.

Для решения поставленных задач в Университете будет сформирована инновационная инфраструктура (международные школы бизнеса нового образца, бизнес-инкубаторы, технопарки и др.), запущены механизмы постоянных информационных обменов с бизнесом и научными организациями, призванные превратить Университет в площадку научно-технических и социальных коммуникаций (конференции, семинары, выставки, тренинги, подключение экспертов и политических лидеров к глобальным сетям), в ресурсный центр по обмену опытом и информацией, в регионального лидера в сфере дополнительного профессионального образования. В контексте решения вопроса подготовки и переподготовки высококвалифицированных кадров нового типа, ориентированных на специалистов определенного профиля, появятся и программы дополнительного образования, рассчитанные на более широкий контингент. Университет призван задать образцы и стандарты новых компетенций и установок, которыми должны обладать выпускники системы дополнительного профессионального образования, чтобы отвечать требованиям растущих перспективных сегментов рынка труда, а также на качественно новом уровне развернуть подготовку педагогических и руководящих кадров для реализации программ непрерывного профессионального образования Самарского региона. Университет станет крупным центром подготовки и переподготовки кадров, повышения квалификации, дополнительного образования, будет способствовать системной модернизации образования в округе.

Однако необходимо еще раз обратить внимание на такие негативные тенденции, которые необходимо преодолеть для успешной реализации Программы Стратегического Развития:

- низкий уровень языковой подготовки значительной части ППС, препятствующий интеграции Университета в международное образовательное пространство, масштабной интернационализации его деятельности;
- в Самарской области избыточно развита сеть негосударственных вузов, филиалов и представительств, значительная часть которых не располагает необходимой кадровой и материально-технической базой и предоставляет псевдообразовательные услуги в сфере дополнительного профессионального образования;
- значительное ухудшение демографической ситуации: за период с 2006 по 2012 годы количество выпускников общеобразовательных школ Самарского области сократилось практически вдвое.

К принципиальным подходам, которые должны обеспечить новое качество деятельности СГЭУ в сфере дополнительного профессионального образования, относятся:

1. Концентрация ресурсов университета на развитии наиболее перспективных и продуктивных направлений, на которых вуз имеет шансы занять лидирующие позиции не только в Самарской области, но и в Приволжском Федеральном Округе и отказ от поддержки наименее конкурентоспособных направлений, не участвующих в решении приоритетных социальных задач. Все это определяется по результатам регулярных аудитов, исследований образовательных рынков и форсайт-исследований.

2. Активная кадровая политика, направленная на развитие живой, динамичной, открытой организационной культуры, поощряющей инновационное развитие и самосовершенствование сотрудников, способствующее достижению глобальных целей Программы Стратегического развития Университета. Данная политика подразумевает создание высокоинтеллектуальной среды, поощрение ППС к саморазвитию и самосовершенствованию, привлечение лучших практиков к образовательной деятельности, активную деятельность по привлечению на работу в Университет на программы бизнес-образования представителей международного рынка, систематическое кадровое обновление и отказ от инбридинга.

3. Реализация элитных образовательных программ, самостоятельно и в кооперации с мировыми лидерами (НИУ – ВШЭ, АНХ и РАГС), интернационализация наиболее конкурентоспособных направлений, направленная на формирование международной репутации университета.

4. Приобретение и инсталляция лучших программ из лидирующих зарубежных и российских университетов, например, таких как Международный университет менеджмента, Открытый Университет Великобритании, для быстрого качественного роста на отстающих направлениях, в частности – параллельное дополнительное образование студентов.

5. Создание новых структур в сфере дополнительного профессионального образования не внутри существующих, а в качестве самостоятельных точек роста с открытым конкурсным отбором кадров (Высшая Школа Менеджмента).

В современном обществе одной из актуальных задач его развития является переход к новым образовательным ориентирам и технологиям, инновационной политике в образовании. Инновации связаны с информатизацией жизни общества и образовательного пространства, новыми подходами к процессу обучения, компетентностным и личностно-ориентированным подходами, государственно-общественным управлением в образовании.

Постоянные изменения и устаревание знаний приводят к необходимости непрерывного образования в течение всей жизни, приобретения навыков самостоятельного обучения, развития предпринимательского мышления, которое предполагает способность к решению возникающих проблем, способность находить и реализовывать новые возможности, используя имеющиеся ресурсы. На сегодняшний день количество научных публикаций, посвященных исследованию трансформаций образовательных программ и бизнес-моделей фирм в сфере предпринимательства, постоянно растет, что

свидетельствует об особом внимании к распространению знаний в данной области с учетом российской специфики.

ФГБОУ ВПО «Самарский экономический университет» в 2011 году принял участие в международном исследовательском проекте «Глобальное исследование предпринимательского духа студентов» (GUESSS). На международном уровне проект GUESSS координировался Швейцарским институтом малых предприятий и предпринимательства Университета Св. Галлена (Swiss Research Institute of Small Business and Entrepreneurship at the University of St. Gallen (KMU-HSG)). Российский координатор проекта – Центр предпринимательства Высшей школы менеджмента СПбГУ. Предпринимательский дух сегодняшних студентов, получающих знания и компетенции в области предпринимательства, в будущем может трансформироваться в создание и развитие успешных предпринимательских фирм. Особенно интересны предпринимательские настроения российских студентов, так как на сегодняшний день малое предпринимательство не является доминирующей экономической силой в России, что вызывает необходимость всестороннего изучения предпринимательства в России. К настоящему времени проведено четыре панельных исследования в 2003, 2004, 2006 и 2008 гг. Россия впервые приняла участие в этом исследовании весной 2011 г. Проект GUESSS сфокусирован на трех задачах, которые были положены в адаптированную теоретическую модель исследования:

1. Мониторинг социально-психологических намерений студентов по организации предпринимательской деятельности для формирования новых исследовательских моделей и программ обучения предпринимательству. С помощью разработанной анкеты студенты отвечали на вопросы относительно их представлений о собственной карьере, о намерениях в плане открытия собственного дела, ожидания от карьеры предпринимателя. Далее исследовались их приоритеты в карьере с учетом разных временных перспектив: сразу после окончания и спустя пять лет после окончания университета, анализировались характеристики созданных студентами фирм.

2. Исследование обеспеченности инфраструктурой обучения предпринимательству: направленность обучения, наличие курсов и семинаров по предпринимательству, бизнес-инкубаторов, общий предпринимательский климат в университете.

3. Мониторинг и анализ индивидуальных социодемографических характеристик студентов и их влияния на предпринимательскую активность студентов. Возраст, пол, семейные характеристики, а также принадлежность к определенным поведенческим моделям, несомненно, влияют на развитие социально-психологических предпринимательских намерений по созданию собственного бизнеса.

Результаты проведенного исследования позволяют выделить и ряд существенных проблем в обучении предпринимательству, развитии и распространении предпринимательских намерений в Самарском регионе. Мир становится все более глобальным и успешность отдельных регионов зависит от способности экономики региона интегрироваться в международное пространство, от формирования деловой среды, способствующей, поддерживающей и укрепляющей рост предпринимательских инициатив.

Поддержка предпринимательства всегда является ключевым фактором, так как предпринимательство обладает интегральным свойством содействия экономическому развитию региона. С одной стороны – в качестве важного канала для объединения инновационных идей с экономическими возможностями, с другой стороны – в качестве важного источника создания рабочих мест и увеличения производительности.

Представляется, что при должной поддержке на государственном уровне индекс предпринимательской силы России был бы намного выше нынешнего значения. Соответственно, нужны комбинированные подходы, объединяющие и поддержку предпринимателей по устранению барьеров на пути развития бизнеса и формирование улучшенной инфраструктуры для обучения предпринимательству в вузах в рамках основного и бизнес-образования. На сегодняшний день очень важно сформировать достаточную прослойку населения, которая способна не только распознать новые инновационные направления деятельности будущего бизнеса, но и обладающей сформированными компетенциями для их реализации, а здесь уже без квалифицированной поддержки и формирования инфраструктуры образовательной системы не обойтись. Поэтому одним из приоритетов стратегического развития экономического университета должны стать исследования ключевых элементов креативного кластера предпринимательской экосистемы Самарской области, позволяющие:

- разработать модель социального лифта как основы построения предпринимательской экосистемы Самарской области;
- выделить ключевые элементы креативного кластера предпринимательской экосистемы Самарской области;
- построить модель предпринимательского университета как основы инновационного экономического развития региона;
- разработать образовательные стандарты и программы обучения предпринимательству в системе дополнительного профессионального образования.

Последние годы были достаточно сложными для развития предпринимательства не только в России, но и в других странах. Поэтому обсуждение новых вызовов глобальной экономики невозможно без реализации различных типов инициатив и стратегий, направленных на поощрение предпринимательства, включая внедрение новых образовательных моделей обучения, продвижение консультационной поддержки предпринимателей, что, в конечном итоге, позволит перейти к реальному функционированию предпринимательской модели современного экономического университета.

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Part 6

Key Directions and Characteristics of Research Organization in Contemporary World

Ключевые направления и особенности проведения научных исследований в современном мире

GALINA ZASHCHITINA

METAPHORS IN THE PRESS: THE EFFECTIVENESS OF WORKING WITH NEWSPAPER TROPES TO IMPROVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPETENCE

Abstract

The given article intends to focus on some approaches to teaching English as a second language at an advanced or proficient level. The paper primarily deals with the ways in which stylistic aspect of newspaper language can be put to use by university students thus becoming an integral part of their classroom discourse. The study aims at presenting newspaper metaphors as cognitive units of the language which, in its turn, allows one to consider them cultural items as they often have realia behind them. Newspaper language, sensitive to any fact of daily life vastly use metaphors, and given that it seems evident that by mastering newspaper metaphors adult learners dramatically increase their chances of becoming competent language users.

Introduction

As teachers and scholars grow to understand how much the special language media as well as different types of discourse matter in language learning and communication they come to see that stylistic aspect of the language may become an integral and invaluable part of teaching English to advanced adult learners especially to university students of linguistics or those majoring in pedagogy (MDE, 2004). Despite some theorists claims that the stylistics of a language should be studied only in connection with selective courses or that it must be confined solely to the postgraduate studies, we strongly believe that integrating stylistic analysis into everyday language learning activities will only contribute to a more effective foreign language acquisition. Thus any limited approach to the place of stylistics in the

English curriculum can no longer be fully accepted. We also tend to agree with McIntyre who considers the teaching of stylistics in further and higher education arguing that “for students to get the most from stylistics, it needs to be taught alongside core methodological principles from linguistics” (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2011; Jeffries, 2009). Given that and relying on the existing achievements in the field (Cameron, 2003), we think it possible to assume that by focusing more on stylistic analysis of news and feature newspaper articles’ discourse university students can not only get an insight into how English works but master the techniques of non-literary texts analysis and interpretation, work out the mechanisms and strategies of compositional discourse patterns which in its turn will undoubtedly contribute to achieving excellence in English. University students of linguistics master a foreign language more conscientiously when analyzing it from stylistic perspective, starting with the whole text and then proceeding to the study of each detail within it. A student sees each part of the text, each line and word in context. And as the student becomes more sophisticated this knowledge becomes more sharply contrasted with naïve or purely participatory reaction.

Stylistic aspect of metaphors in newspaper discourse

The necessity to highlight the practical application of stylistic analysis of non-literary discourse, namely that of newspapers and consequently, educating students of linguistics into this useful habit is predetermined by a number of reasons. As newspaper texts are widely available either in printed or on-line form, it is strongly recommended that teachers in the classroom should take every opportunity in encouraging their students to analyze the way various expressive means of the language are set to work in different texts, approaching the former not as purely decorative means but as those language units which can also help to succeed in what is called “a cross cultural communication”. Thus tropes, such as metaphor can be of great help in shedding new light on the aspects of language which could previously seem vague and obscure to an untrained eye, of no more use than ornamental language units. It follows from the above mentioned that advanced learners of English must be encouraged to see that not only fiction writers but also newspaper journalists resort to figurative language in order to convey concepts originally developed by and addressed to a different audience (Di Bari & Gouthier, 2004).

Unfortunately it is not an uncommon situation when working with university students of English at Moscow State Linguistic University, the author of the study finds that they are eager to identify tropes and analyze their significance in all kinds of literary texts but are quite unwilling to do so when it comes to newspaper discourse. Newspaper texts are traditionally approached and treated by both teachers and students as ample sources of clichés and hackneyed speech patterns and the former consider them useful only in terms of the factual information they can give a student. The stylistic aspect of newspaper discourse is often disregarded and a search for tropes as well as their further analysis is often neglected, presumably as having very little practical use. There seem to be at least three (and in fact there are many more) comprehensive explanations for the problem: one is that students of English as a target language may have poor knowledge of the system of tropes existing in the language, another is that they are unaware of the possibilities that newspaper tropes offer in terms of language learning and what is more they do not

see that by mastering newspaper tropes, metaphors in particular, they reduce the chances for cross-cultural miscommunication which is often the case “when a person of one culture”, i.e. a native English-speaking journalist or reporter, sends a message using figurative language to “a person of another culture” i.e. a student of English (Adler, 1991).

Such close attention to the stylistic means of newspaper language is preconditioned by a number of reasons. First, it is the assumption that newspaper discourse is abundant in the data of versatile character which allows individuals to confront us not only with facts but also with an extensive range of stereotypes, norms and values which may seem unfamiliar or even alien to a person of another culture. Second, it is in newspaper texts and namely in feature articles that we observe subjective evaluation domineering over factual component or emotions taking over phenomena that seem rational. Objective reality is interpreted in newspaper discourse along two lines: explicitly through plain facts as well as implicitly through various language means among which such tropes as metaphor, based on imagery and interplay of meanings, are prevalent. Newspapers are known to react instantly to any daily event and with other types of mass media winning over the targeted addressee, newspapers are becoming increasingly competitive in presenting their opinion. (Richardson, 2006) As sources of metaphors are man and his pursuits, nature, history and mythology they become indispensable in representing all fields of man activity with a marked bias towards those concerning political, economic and social issues (Rodriguez Marquez, 2010).

Discussion

The author of the given paper believes that working out a number of classroom strategies one may try to bridge the gap between a fear of tropes and their effective decoding in newspaper texts which will eventually turn stylistic analysis of language means into an attractive challenge. First, it is highly recommended to focus students' attention on newspaper metaphors as, genuine and trite, they stand out conspicuously in the texts catching the students' eye. Thus, assisted by the teacher, they become aware of the fact that metaphors are the products of two-fold perception and not a displacement of words but the natural outcome of thought achieved by comparison. It is always a result of some creative process at the background of the text as a whole. What is more, the students start to see that in case of metaphor we get a fusion of things that are brought together. The degree of fusion may be different and it depends very much on the syntactical function of metaphor. Second, the author suggests that at this stage teachers should not only get their students into the linguistic nature and properties of metaphor, but work out activities that will allow the students to see the way metaphors work in newspaper texts primarily as tools serving the purpose of encoding the message produced by the sender. Decoding, in its turn, may require some mental effort on their part, as metaphors are complex cognitive units (Semino, 2008; Wikberg, 2004). It is also believed that a number of theories of metaphor such as those worked out by Lakoff & Johnson (1980) or Turner (1991) can be of help for those teachers determined to motivate their students into decoding newspaper metaphors, as according to the given views of Lakoff & Johnson (1980), metaphors can help us define and construct the reality “as the concept is metaphorically structured, the activity is

metaphorically structured, and, consequently, the language is metaphorically structured”.

Classroom activities for students can be arranged starting from the simplest tasks and then gradually increasing the level of difficulty which can be suggested next to each activity heading. (Harmer, 1991) The teacher prepares examples of metaphors, borrowed from a number of quality newspaper texts, referring to man's activity as well as samples of metaphors which often personify political and economic reality. The students are encouraged to analyze and interpret these metaphors and do some follow-up activities which include spotting and highlighting metaphors in newspaper articles and headlines on their own as the teacher controls feedback giving the clues if needed. For example, the students can be offered a headline:

School Budget Cuts: Careers Advice, Music and Art among First Casualties (The Guardian, 2010)

The follow-up activities may read as follows:

1. Look at the following headline and elicit a metaphor. Say to which spheres of human activity (war, games, competition, sports, etc.) it may refer to? What makes you think so? Can you guess the content of the article judging from its headline?

If the students experience any difficulty in decoding the idea behind the metaphor in the headline, the teacher should provide them with the context to form the background for a better understanding.

After the students familiarize themselves with the contents of the article, another set of tasks checking comprehension can follow:

2. Comment on the author's intention behind the metaphor. Do you think this metaphor is effective enough? Give reasons explaining the author's choice of language means to express his opinion that way. What are the ways in which the idea expressed by the metaphor in the headline is further developed or explained in the body of the article? Translate the headline into your language. Focus on the changes you have to make to keep the image/concept unchanged.

In addition, a number of various tasks can be produced, aimed at a closer and more demanding analysis of newspaper metaphors. For instance, the whole article or an extract containing a prolonged metaphor can be offered to students' attention. As we know, a prolonged metaphor is not confined to one image but involves a number of contributory images. It is obligatory on the teacher's part to decide whether these supporting images as well as the central one should be italicized or highlighted in the text such as that:

The great EU *power carve-up* has begun. It is a *battle fought* with high-flown rhetoric, backroom horse-trading, "strongly worded statements", audacious leaks to the press and brinkmanship. The *battlefield* is a staid debating chamber at the European Parliament in Brussels and there is *not a tank or a pikestaff* in sight. Twenty first century Europe prefers jaw-jaw to war-war (The Guardian, 2003).

As students' competence grows the tasks can become more challenging with all the clues to both the central image metaphor and the supporting ones removed from the text. The follow up activities can involve such tasks as retelling the text, translating metaphoric structures, explaining the choice of expression or

commenting on the pragmatic aspect of the metaphor and its role in the text. The teacher can also create some additional tasks for further practice in decoding metaphors, and offer activities aimed at dealing with metaphors viewing them as effective tools of political influence. The students can be asked to figure out what type of realia – those culture specific elements, which are often abundant in politicians' speeches all over the globe – are behind the metaphors present in the text in question. The number of such tasks depends on students' language proficiency and is an option.

Conclusion

In this article we have discussed the importance and a method of teaching to perceive and decode newspaper metaphors, which, we assume, can be effective in teaching some other tropes, such as metonymy, periphrasis or simile observed in newspaper texts. We have briefly outlined the ways of getting students of English as a target language to practice their skills in practical application of their knowledge of stylistics. The types of tasks which can be set, communicative activities designed to monitor the progress made and to motivate the students, as well as the speed expected from the students, are subject to any change depending on the kind of feedback a teacher wants to get from the students. We imply that further, more detailed research into the matter is needed. It should be mentioned though, that the applied method may prove effective only on condition that the listed activities are introduced to students on a regular basis.

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ROZA INSHINA & LYUDMILA MURZALIMOVA**LEGAL PORTION IN RUSSIAN INHERITANCE LAW**

Right to inherit is one of the basic human rights guaranteed by the Constitution of the Russian Federation. The state has set rules according to which after a person's death his or her property is inherited by other persons. The Russian civil legislation establishes the institution of legal portions that is meant to protect rights of poor people on the one hand, and enables forced heirs to abuse their rights derogating from rights of other heirs.

The right to inherit guaranteed by Article 35 c. 4 of the Constitution of the Russian Federation [10] ensures transfer of a testator's property to other persons in accordance with procedure set by the legal legislation.

The Civil Code of the Russian Federation has Section V "Inheritance Law" [5] with structured legal norms regulating the institution of inheritance.

In case of inheritance the decedent's property (estate, inherited property) is transferred to other persons by way of universal succession, id est as it is, as a whole and at the same moment, unless the provisions of the RF Civil Code [5] state otherwise.

Pursuant to Article 1111 of the RF Civil Code [5] the Russian inheritance law assumes two main grounds for inheritance – under a will and under the law. In accordance with the abovementioned article inheritance under the law occurs when and to the extent it is not altered by a will, and in other cases specified in the RF Civil Code [5].

It is evident that inheritance under the law is subordinate to inheritance under a will. In the cases when the testator has clearly expressed his or her will having disposed of the property upon his or her death inheritance shall occur in accordance with the testator's will and not the rules set by the state. This principle that was characteristic of the previous legislation in the field of inheritance law was further developed in the third part of the RF Civil Code [9].

Classical definition of will in civil terms was given by O. S. Ioffe and reads as follows, "will is a unilateral formal personal deal of disposal made on the occasion of death to regulate hereditary succession" [8, p. 309].

Pursuant to Article 1118 c. 1 of the RF Civil Code [5] disposal of property on the occasion of death can be implemented only by means of a will. A will shall be drawn up in a form strictly determined by law. Rules related to will execution procedure shall be observed.

Freedom of testation is the main principle of will [15, p. 79]. Rules of Chapter 62 of the RF Civil Code [5] ensure greater freedom of testation than any previous Russian legislation, both pre-revolutionary and soviet. In particular, the principles of freedom and secrecy of will are ensured, the legal portion percentage is decreased, there is a possibility to choose the form of will execution, specific conditions of a person's testamentary capacity are provided [1].

Freedom of testation is guaranteed by Article 1119 of the RF Civil Code [5] means the following. The testator is entitled to dispose of any property, in particular

specify in the will property that he/she may buy in future. The testator is entitled to mention in the will any persons at his/her discretion, both forced heirs and persons that do not belong to this group, to determine the shares of property to be transferred to heirs and to substitute heirs in accordance with Article 1121 c. 2 of the RF Civil Code [5]. The law entitles the testator to disinherit one, several or all forced heirs without giving any reasons for such decision and to include some other orders into the will in the cases specified in the RF Civil Code [5]. Besides, the testator is entitled to cancel or to amend the will that was made, moreover the testator is not obliged to inform anyone about the contents, execution, amendment or cancellation of the will.

The principle of freedom of testation is restricted by the rules of the RF Civil Code [5] dealing with legal portions. Some authors state that provisions about the legal portion impose on the testator an obligation to provide material alimentation to certain persons [2].

O. S. Ioffe defines the main point of legal portion as a sort of minimum for forced heirs [7, p. 317].

In accordance with Article 1149 c. 1 of the RF Civil Code [5] the right for legal portion is granted to underage or disabled children of the testator, his/her disabled spouse and parents, and disabled dependents of the testator. The amount of such legal portion is no less than half of the share that would be due to them in case of inheritance under the law.

According to G. S. Limanskiy the provision on legal portion of inheritance is not mandatory any longer. In accordance with provisions of the Civil Code of the RSFSR [4] of 1964 claims of forced heirs were satisfied without taking into consideration their financial standing, need for certain property, actual capacity to work. Respective share was assigned to those who did not need specific inherited property, was well-off, and/or had a permanent source of income unlike the heir in whose favour the will was made. As a result realization of the provision regarding the right to a legal portion came into collision with the purpose of its introduction [11].

Such law enforcement practice was recognized to be unreasoned by the Constitutional Court of the Russian Federation and it was represented in its ruling № 209-O “On refusal to accept for consideration complaint of Ms. Kurkina Elena Anatolievna with respect to violation of her constitutional rights by Article 535 of the RSFSR Civil Code” dated December 9, 1999 [12]. In this ruling the Constitutional Court points out that analysis of the practice of use of Article 535 of the RSFSR Civil Code [4] shows that legal portion is treated by courts as an absolutely imperative provision without taking into account factual background of each specific case, in particular whether a disabled heir by force of law has his/her own property, whether he/she contributed to common property accumulation, duration of joint use thereof. Providing to an heir legal portion in full on all occasions and incorrect determination of persons who are entitled to get a legal portion of inheritance can result in violation of the principle of social justice and debarring people of the right for judicial defense.

Judicial evaluation of such circumstances is necessary, because judicial control is an essential guarantee of protection of people’s constitutional rights.

The RF Constitutional Court ruled that provision of Article 535 of the RSFSR Civil Code [4] on the right for legal portion did not exclude the right of other heirs to submit a claim asking to check grounds for recognition of the person's right for a legal portion and to alter its amount proceeding from the factual background of the specific case (whether the person that has right for a legal portion has his/her own property sufficient for living) on the basis of the principle of social justice and requirement to restrict the right to inherit guaranteed to people [12] in strict compliance with the purposes recognized by the Constitution.

It should be noted that the efficient civil legislation restricts the right for a legal portion by provisions about undeserving heirs: an undeserving forced heir is not invited to inheritance [11]. In Article 1117 c. 4 of the RF Civil Code [5] it is clearly stated that provisions dealing with undeserving heirs are applicable to heirs that have a right for a legal portion.

Besides, rights of forced heirs are restricted by Article 1149 c. 4 of the RF Civil Code [5]. If exercising the right for a legal portion results in impossibility to transfer to the heir specified in the will any assets that were not used by the forced heir during the testator's lifetime but were used by the heir specified in the will for residence (a dwelling house, an apartment) or as the main source of income (instruments of labour, boutique) the court, taking into account the financial standing of forced heirs, is entitled to reduce the legal portion amount or to refuse to adjudge it.

This innovation in the Russian inheritance law is aimed, first of all, at enhancing the principle of freedom of testation and protection of interests of heirs specified in the will, because persons that make a claim for a legal portion are not always poor.

In opinion of M. V. Telyukina Article 1149 c. 4 of the RF Civil Code [5] describes the situation that can be characterized as abuse of the right of a forced heir. The right abuse lies in the fact that a forced heir that is not in need uses his/her right for a legal portion to take property from an heir who needs it. On the basis of the foregoing M. V. Telyukina makes a conclusion that provisions of Article 1149 c. 4 of the RF Civil Code [5] correspond to provisions of Article 10 c. 2 of the RF Civil Code [5], which says that if a right is abused the court is entitled to refuse to protect such right. Cancellation of a legal portion can be treated as an unconditional refusal to protect the right [13].

It should be acknowledged that Russian civil legislation has set that legal portion reduction or refusal to adjudge it shall be realized in a judicial procedure.

In that case the court considers the factual circumstances and evaluates the financial standing of forced heirs and other heirs. There is another opinion, according to which the court shall not compare the financial standing of forced and other heirs, but shall compare a forced heir's financial standing with the subsistence minimum [13].

In legal literature there is a viewpoint that when a legal portion is determined, it is necessary to consider the financial standing of the heir that makes a claim for a legal portion according to the rules set in the legislation. For example, M. Yu. Barshchevskiy suggests "setting a new procedure for determination of a legal portion for certain categories of heirs with differentiation depending on the financial standing of the forced heir" [3].

The list of forced heirs specified in the civil legislation is also subject to criticism. For example, N. B. Demina points out that “inclusion of testator’s dependents into forced heirs on equal terms is unreasoned as legally these persons are not members of his/her family” [6]. In Demina’s opinion financial support of such dependents was voluntarily assumed by the testator at his/her own discretion and not on any legal ground, and therefore it is a form of the testator’s charity activities. If providing such financial support to his/her dependents the testator does not include them into the will, does not assign to them any property, such testamentary intention of the testator leads to the conclusion that the testator believes his/her voluntarily assumed obligation has been fulfilled and he/she sees no grounds to continue rendering financial support to the said persons. N. B. Demina considers it to be illogical to impose such obligation on the testator’s relatives who did not participate in selection of the dependent, choosing the type and amount of financial support due to him/her [6].

In the authors’ opinion this viewpoint is reasonable. Moreover, it is supposed that when the testator renders material support to dependents during his/her lifetime he/she has certain money amounts that he/she can spend on their alimentations and financial support. Let’s consider a particular case. The source of money amounts can be labour activities of the testator, and consequently the source of financial support rendered to dependents and alimentations to relatives is the salary regularly drawn by the testator.

In accordance with Article 83 c. 1.6 of the RF Labour Code [14] labour contract shall be terminated if the employee dies or is recognized to be dead or missing by court. Thus labour relations are terminated upon the testator’s death and the testator’s relatives lose stable financial support rendered from the testator’s salary and at the same time the burden of alimentations of the testator’s dependents is imposed on them.

Support of unemployable categories of persons is the state’s duty. The Russian Federation has undertaken this duty pursuant to Articles 7, 39 of the Constitution of the Russian Federation [10]. The right to get social allowance from the state is a directly applied right of anyone entitled to get such allowance. Taking into consideration the provisions of Article 1149 of the RF Civil Code [5] N. B. Demina draws a conclusion that in this way the state transfers the duty to provide alimentations to the testator’s relatives, thus derogating directly applied right of the testator’s relatives for getting the inheritance [6].

In the authors’ opinion if the financial standing of a forced heir makes it possible to reduce his/her share without causing substantial damage or to refuse to adjudge it, if the forced heir’s own property is sufficient for living, it shall be taken into account by court when considering reduction of the legal portion or refusal to adjudge it.

Amendments made to the civil legislation show that the testator’s free testamentary intention expressed in a will is more strictly protected by the state. Legal norms set in the efficient RF Civil Code [5] governing the institution of legal portion acknowledge priority of the will as compared with the previous legislation [4].

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**АНАТОЛИЙ ГЕННАДЬЕВИЧ МАДЖУГА, ЭЛЬВИРА НАИЛЕВНА
ИЛЬЯСОВА / ANATOLY MADZHUGA, ELVIRA ILYASOVA**

ФОРМИРОВАНИЕ ЗДОРОВЬЕСОЗИДАЮЩЕЙ (САНОГЕННОЙ) ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЙ СРЕДЫ В ИННОВАЦИОННЫХ УСЛОВИЯХ

FORMATION OF HEALTHY (SANOGENIC) EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT IN INNOVATIVE CONDITIONS

Аннотация / Abstract

В данной статье представлены дефиниции понятий «здоровьесберегающая образовательная среда» и «здоровьесозидающая образовательная среда» и авторское определение этих феноменологических категорий, рассмотрены особенности взаимосвязи саногенной направленности у педагогов и студентов с типом формируемой в процессе их взаимодействия образовательной среды, механизмы формирования особого вида коппинг-поведения – саногенной рефлексии у субъектов образовательного процесса. Особое внимание авторы уделяют вопросам организации здоровьесозидающей образовательной среды в учреждениях различного типа и вида и характеристике базовых подходов и принципов её моделирования.

This paper gives the definition of the concepts of «health-caring educational environment» and «health-creating educational environment», and proposes the author's own definition of these phenomenological categories. It also considers the relationship of sanogenic tendencies which students and teachers develop, on the one hand, and the type of the environment which is formed in the process of their interaction, on the other hand; the mechanisms of forming a special kind of coping behavior – namely sanogenic reflection by the subjects of the educational process. The authors pay special attention to the organization of health-creating educational environment in the institutions of various types and forms and to the characteristic of the basic approaches and principles of its modeling.

В системе образования страны происходят кардинальные изменения, нацеленные на создание оптимальной структуры образования, адекватно отражающие нынешнее состояние рыночного общества. Традиционные образовательные модели чаще всего оказываются не адаптированными к стремительным переменам общественно-экономической жизни страны в силу неадекватности содержания образования потребностям общества. На сегодняшний день формируется социальный заказ общественности на подготовку всесторонне развитых личностей, способных к самостоятельной работе, умеющих действовать в нестандартных ситуациях и поддерживать стабильное развитие окружающего социоприродного мира и всегда ощущающих потребность в непрерывном образовании.

В условиях современного динамически развивающегося мира и системной глобализации мирового сообщества образование должно быть ориентировано на формирование личности, способной к разностороннему, целостному

видению, анализу сложных проблем жизни общества и природы, готовой к решению различных проблем антропогенного характера. Реалии сегодняшнего мира убеждают, что существующая система образования нуждается в качественно новом подходе, определяющем дальнейшую стратегию его развития.

Сегодня в обществе формируется системное понимание приоритетности человеческой культуры перед технологией в прогрессе цивилизации, принципиальной бесперспективности попыток решения глобальных экологических и духовных проблем чисто технократическими методами, безальтернативности коэволюции общества и природы, ограниченности земных ресурсов и угрозы экологического кризиса, несостоятельности воззрения о «всемогуществе» человечества. Но, с другой стороны, в условиях экономоцентризма современного общества, обуславливающего потребительскую ориентацию человека, становится проблематичным развитие его в русле природосообразности и культуросообразности, которые выступают необходимым условием устойчивого развития цивилизации. Наличие этих общечеловеческих проблем доказывает, что миру необходимо новое модернизированное образование, нацеленное на перестройку сознания и деятельности человека в соответствии с законами природы.

Актуальность исследования обусловлена сложившейся экономической, экологической и политической обстановкой, кардинально изменившей цели, содержание и функции образования как важного фактора социальной стабильности, преемника культуры, ресурса сохранения нравственного, физического и психического здоровья молодежи. Сложившаяся ситуация стимулирует поиск и внедрение прогрессивных технологий, гибких организационных форм, разработку принципов обучения и воспитания, определение эффективных способов индивидуального подхода к обучающимся. Формирование личности, здоровой, социально устойчивой, адаптированной к условиям жизни и счастливой – главная цель современного образования. Наряду с традиционными функциями – обучающей, воспитывающей и развивающей – образование и его институты выполняют функции культуропреимственности и культуротворчества, здоровьесозидания, социальной защиты, т. е. в современных условиях возрастает многофункциональность образования.

Для России, как и многих других постсоветских государств, особая роль в изменении стратегического развития образования отводится формированию культуры здоровья субъектов образовательного процесса, основ здорового образа жизни. В Закон Российской Федерации «Об образовании» (2007 г.) внесена поправка, определяющая формирование духовно-нравственной личности, ориентированной, на здоровый и безопасный образ жизни, как одно из основных общих требований к содержанию образования. В «Основных направлениях правительства РФ на период до 2012 года», в «Концепции долгосрочного социально-экономического развития РФ на период до 2020 года», в «Национальной доктрине развития образования РФ до 2025 года» отмечается, что сегодня приоритетной задачей системы образования в нашей стране является воспитание человека в духе ответственного отношения к собственному здоровью и здоровью окружающих, как наивысшей социальной

ценности, формирование высокого уровня здоровья детей и учащейся молодежи во всех его аспектах – духовном, психическом, физическом.

В настоящее время в педагогической практике наметилась тенденция к переходу от унифицированного образования к образованию, учитывающему личностные особенности и способности каждого индивида, а также уровень его здоровья. Новые ориентиры образования смещают фокус внимания с формирования знаний, умений и навыков на целостное развитие личности, на стимулирование ценностного отношения к здоровью, определяющего в дальнейшем полноту реализации жизненных целей и смыслов.

Современные исследования указывают на то, что традиционный образовательный процесс имеет негативное влияние на состояние здоровья детей. Так, по данным М. М. Безруких (2003), В. Р. Кучмы (2009) около 25–30% детей, приходящих в 1-е классы, имеют те или иные отклонения в состоянии здоровья. За период обучения в школе число здоровых детей уменьшается в 4 раза. К окончанию школы у трети выпускников наблюдаются нарушения сердечно-сосудистой системы, число страдающих близорукостью увеличивается с 3% до 30%, нервно-психическими расстройствами – с 15% до 40%, гастроэнтерологическими заболеваниями – в 3,8 раза. Число детей, состоящих на диспансерном учете, в некоторых школах достигает 50%.

По данным лонгитюдных социально-психологических исследований, требование сохранения здоровья обучающихся находится на первом месте в иерархии запросов к результатам общего образования. По материалам проекта «Федеральные государственные образовательные стандарты (ФГОС) нового поколения» 95% опрошенных среди всех заинтересованных групп (семей, специалистов органов образования, педагогической общественности, медицинских ассоциаций и т. п.) включают сохранение здоровья обучающихся в первую пятерку своих потребностных запросов. Поэтому решение проблемы здоровья участников образовательного процесса отмечается как приоритетная цель в большинстве документов, характеризующих российскую государственную политику: Концепции долгосрочного социально-экономического развития до 2020 года, раздел 3.4 «Образование» (одобрена Правительством РФ 1.10.2008, протокол №36), Основные направления деятельности Правительства РФ на период до 2012 года (от 17.11.2008 № 1663-р), Послания Президента Российской Федерации Федеральному собранию (2008, 2009 годы). Следует отметить, что ФГОС нового поколения впервые определяют такую составляющую, как здоровье, в качестве одного из важнейших результатов образования, а сохранение и укрепление здоровья – в качестве приоритетного направления деятельности. В вышеназванных документах указаны важные задачи школы: обеспечение индивидуального подхода, минимизирующего риски для здоровья в процессе обучения; создание комфортных условий обучения; создание мотивации и условий для здорового образа жизни.

В связи с этим наиболее адекватным подходом к обеспечению здоровья человека в системе образования является *здоровьесозидающий подход*, который подчеркивает развивающий и формирующий характер влияния образования на здоровье участников образовательного процесса и реализуется

через построение *здоровьесозидающей (саногенной) образовательной среды (ЗОС)* [3].

Важно подчеркнуть, что сегодня профессиональная подготовка педагогов не учитывает высокий риск развития у этой группы специалистов профессионального стресса, приводящего в дальнейшем к их эмоциональному выгоранию и профессиональной деформации. Именно поэтому, возникает необходимость обучения педагогов саногенному поведению, которое рассматривается как способ активности специалиста по сохранению собственного здоровья (В. С. Ротенберг, Н. Р. Григорьев, В. В. Лукьянов). Кроме того, большинство проблем здоровья создается и решается в ходе ежедневной практической работы педагогов, т. е. связано с их профессиональной деятельностью; констатируется низкий уровень здоровья самих педагогов и его негативная зависимость от профессионального труда. Поэтому ведущим компонентом здоровьесозидающей образовательной среды является здоровьесозидающая деятельность (ЗСД) педагога.

Следует отметить, что в качестве базового психологического условия в процессе проектирования саногенной (здоровьесозидающей) образовательной среды в образовательном учреждении выступает формирование у её субъектов (обучающихся, педагогов, специалистов учреждения) саногенной рефлексии. В переводе с греческого языка саногенный означает «несущий здоровье» (*sanos* – оздоровление; *genos* – несущий). В процессе саногенной рефлексии происходит переосмысление личностью собственных установок, сопровождающееся личностным ростом и совершенствованием деятельности и отношений человека. Процесс саногенной рефлексии проявляется в реконструкции прежних схем деятельности и тех схем, которые возникают после акта рефлексии. За счет самопринятия, принятия других саногенная рефлексия возвращает человеку уверенность, гармонию отношений с миром, укрепляет базовое доверие к миру [6].

Ю. М. Орлов подчёркивает, что основным методом развития саногенной рефлексии является аутопсихоанализ эмоций, который осуществляется в процессе специальных занятий, направленных на самопознание эмоций. На практике многократно подтверждена эффективность обучения саногенной рефлексии в форме социально-психологического тренинга, также в настоящее время предложена и апробирована в эксперименте технология развития саногенной рефлексии в самостоятельной работе обучающихся.

Таким образом, основная функция саногенной рефлексии заключается в регуляции эмоциональных состояний человека и уменьшения страдания от них. Ю. М. Орлов разработал, а его ученики многократно апробировали механизм рефлексии негативных эмоций, приводящий к их гашению. В ряде работ экспериментально доказано позитивное влияние саногенной рефлексии на снижение тревожности, оптимизации акцентуации характера, социально-психологической адаптации, повышение академической успеваемости и т. д. [4; 5; 7].

В нашем понимании саногенная рефлексия – это вид рефлексии, позволяющий человеку актуализировать свои внутриличностные ресурсы на базе потенциалов здоровья (волевого, креативного, чувственного, общественного, физического, интеллектуального, духовного), осуществить

коррекцию негативных поведенческих паттернов и выбрать оптимальные программы поведения, которые обеспечивают формирование позитивных социально-психологических установок в различных сферах жизни и деятельности. В связи с этим основополагающим ориентиром в процессе проектирования саногенной (здоровьесозидающей) образовательной среды будет являться формирование у субъектов педагогического процесса саногенной направленности. *Саногенная направленность* – это интегральное личностное образование, представляющее собой систему мотивов человека, определяющих его активность в отношении своего здоровья. Саногенная направленность является результатом аккумуляирования индивидуального опыта здоровьесберегающей, здоровьесформирующей, здоровьеразвивающей, здоровьетворящей и здоровьесозидающей деятельности и обеспечивает формирование у человека устойчивых ценностно-мотивационных установок на здоровье, здоровый образ жизни и адекватных им моделей поведения, направленных на актуализацию внутриличностных ресурсов и управление своим здоровьем в различных жизненных ситуациях на основе механизмов саногенной рефлексии. Следовательно, при формировании саногенной направленности у педагогов и обучающихся возникает особый вид коппинг-поведения (совладающего) – саногенная рефлексия, которую можно рассматривать как интегральный показатель при оценке уровня сформированности саногенной (здоровьесозидающей) образовательной среды.

Из сказанного следует, что задачу обеспечения здоровья молодого поколения следует решать *образовательными (педагогическими) средствами*. Именно поэтому, разработанная нами психолого-педагогическая концепция здоровьесозидающей функции образования базируется на образовательных ресурсах. Опираясь на системный и валеологический подходы к обучению и воспитанию, мы разрабатываем проект целостной системы здоровьесозидающей деятельности образовательного учреждения. Этой деятельностью мы должны оптимально «обогащать», разумно «насытить», образовательные системы, а, в конечном итоге, создать проект здоровьесозидающего образовательного учреждения. В нем за счет образовательных ресурсов реализуется внутренняя программа индивидуального соматического развития каждого человека, которая природно в нем заложена и опосредована его доминирующими базовыми потребностями. В здоровьесозидающем учреждении укрепляется психика обучающихся, формируется уверенность в собственных силах, и, следовательно, обеспечивается лучшая регуляция их образовательной деятельности. Наряду с этим в нем создаются нравственно-психологические основы для нормального развития мотивационной и смысловой сферы социальной деятельности (позитивного отношения и соблюдения общепринятых норм общественного поведения). В связи с этим в процессе обучения у обучающихся повышаются соматические, психические и социальные резервы здоровья.

Система управления здоровьесозидающей деятельностью в каждом учреждении образования должна формироваться, с одной стороны, исходя из условий его функционирования, с другой – должна быть оптимальной, достаточной, чтобы обеспечить эффективное решение главной задачи

экспериментального проекта – создание целостной системы здоровьесозидающей деятельности.

Современный подход к здоровью определяет его с системных и индивидуальных позиций, предполагает доминирующую роль психолого-педагогического направления его обеспечения. Доминирующим способом обеспечения здоровья становятся собственные усилия человека по его сохранению и укреплению [1]. Поэтому среди многообразия терминов, характеризующих обеспечение здоровья человека в системе образования, наиболее адекватным является термин *здоровьесозидающее образование*.

Системный характер инноваций в данной области можно определить как построение *здоровьесозидающей (саногенной) образовательной среды*. Образовательное учреждение является частью социокультурной среды: составляющие среды в значительной степени определяют все аспекты жизнедеятельности; в то же время оно как универсальный социальный институт может компенсировать негативные влияния среды на развитие личности и здоровье обучающихся.

М. Г. Колесникова под *здоровьесозидающей (саногенной) образовательной средой (ЗОС)* понимает совокупность компонентов образовательного учреждения, их функциональных взаимосвязей и субъектов, в деятельности которых реализуется обеспечение условий для сохранения и укрепления здоровья участников образовательного процесса, повышения культуры их здоровья [2].

При построении здоровьесозидающей образовательной среды чаще всего решаются три взаимосвязанные *задачи*:

- построение внутренней среды, обеспечивающей здоровьесозидающий характер образовательного процесса и безопасность его участников (внедрение здоровьесозидающих образовательных технологий и научно обоснованного учебного режима, обеспечение двигательной активности, оздоровительной инфраструктуры, здорового питания т. п.);
- повышение культуры здоровья участников образовательного процесса (педагогов, учащихся, специалистов), их готовности к здоровому образу жизни;
- создание условий для коррекции нарушений здоровья, реабилитации и оздоровления ослабленных учащихся (разработка индивидуальных образовательных маршрутов, индивидуальных и групповых оздоровительных программ, неспецифическая первичная профилактика социально обусловленных заболеваний и т. п.).

При организации здоровьесозидающей образовательной среды в учреждениях различного типа и вида целесообразно опираться на *принципы*:

- системного подхода – тесное взаимодействие различных специалистов всех уровней системы образования и всех субъектов образовательного процесса;
- комплексного подхода – использование различных средств, методов и приёмов при организации здоровьесозидающей деятельности;
- индивидуального подхода – учёт индивидуально-типологических, психофизиологических и возрастных особенностей обучающихся при организации и реализации образовательного процесса;

- личностно-ориентированного подхода – акцент на развитие структур личностного уровня психологического здоровья обучающихся (самосознание, ценностно-смысловая, мотивационная сферы личности);
- позитивного подхода – смещение акцента от борьбы с негативными последствиями и исправления дефицитов развития на формирование ресурсного потенциала личности с опорой на её сильные стороны. В рамках названного подхода, особое значение приобретает не столько реализация медицинских мероприятий, направленных на лечение уже больных людей, сколько создание социально адаптированной, личностно ориентированной среды, способствующей формированию у них позитивного отношения к своему здоровью;
- экзистенциально-гуманистического подхода – признание активной роли самой личности в сохранении соматического, психологического и социального здоровья, вера в способность обучающегося делать выбор в сторону здоровья, создание благоприятных социально-психолого-педагогических условий для такого выбора;
- приоритета действенной заботы о здоровье обучающихся и педагогов – предполагает, что всё происходящее в образовательном учреждении – от разработки планов и образовательных программ до проверки их выполнения – должно оцениваться с позиций влияния на здоровье участников процесса;
- интегрального представления об индивидуальном здоровье личности – обуславливает необходимость подходить к определению понятия здоровья как системной категории. На наш взгляд, основной методологической ошибкой в здоровьесберегающей деятельности образовательного учреждения являлась концентрация внимания на физическом здоровье, тогда как другие стороны здоровья, как единого целого, оставались за рамками рассмотрения, что существенно снижало эффективность здоровьесберегающей деятельности учреждения.

Отличие здоровьесозидающей (саногенной) образовательной среды от здоровьесберегающей состоит в следующем: *здоровьесберегающая образовательная среда* обеспечивает сохранение у субъектов педагогического процесса наличного потенциала здоровья, в то время как здоровьесозидающая образовательная среда обеспечивает у субъектов педагогического процесса одновременное развитие бинарных способностей: к акмедействию и самосохранению, к автономии и сотрудничеству на основе умений планирования и формирования четкого образа желаемого результата, имеющего отношение к возможности управления собственным здоровьем как ресурсом.

Таким образом, здоровьесозидающая образовательная среда объединяет в себе все виды ценностно-смысловых ориентаций и является в отличие от здоровьесберегающей образовательной среды полифункциональной, целостной, гуманистической, открытой, синергетической (в ней присутствует тенденция к самоорганизации здорового образа жизни), социально-психолого-педагогической системой, формирующей здоровую личность выпускника образовательного учреждения и обеспечивающей наращивание его здоровья,

посредством формирования установок на активизацию внутриличностных ресурсов.

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ВАЛЕНТИНА ИВАНОВНА ЛИТВИНОВА / VALENTINA LITVINOVA

«ЭТО СВЯТАЯ ИСТИНА» (УЧЕНИЕ Т. БОНДАРЕВА КАК ЭЛЕМЕНТ ФИЛОСОФИИ Л. Н. ТОЛСТОГО)

'THE SACRED TRUTH' (T. BONDAREV'S TEACHING AS AN ELEMENT OF L. N. TOLSTOY'S PHILOSOPHY)

Аннотация / Abstract

The author introduces T. M. Bondarev, a figure widely discussed in the international literature on Tolstoy. The Siberian writer's biography is presented together with the description of his main work's fate, which aesthetic and artistic significance is also analyzed. Special attention is paid to the controversy on the main Tolstoy and Bondarev's religious dogmas. The documents cited in the article are unique because they were found in the archives of provincial museums and this fact makes them extraordinarily interesting and useful.

В трактате «Так что же нам делать?» Л. Н. Толстой поставил ряд вопросов о современном ему политическом и общественном устройстве, актуальность которых подтвердило сочинение крестьянина Бондарева «Трудолюбие и тунеядство, или торжество земледельца», полученное великим графом от сибирского узника Василия Степановича Лебедева. Свою концепцию землепашца крестьянин выразил «только в двух словах: во-первых, почему вы по первородной заповеди сами для себя, своими руками, хлеб не работаете, а чужие поедаете? Во-вторых, почему у вас ни в богословских, ни в гражданских, ни в каких писаниях хлебный труд и трудящиеся в нем не ободряются, а донельзя унижаются?» [1, с. 4].

Лев Николаевич сразу же заинтересовался сибирским мыслителем и попросил Лебедева сообщить подробности о личности Бондарева: его звании, семейном положении, образе жизни, религиозном убеждении («хорошо бы было, если бы они ограничивались первородными законами и законами только нравственными, связанными с ним»). Волновал великого графа и образ жизни сибирского крестьянина, и его настроения. Он просил Лебедева передать Бондареву, что он «в этой рукописи со всем созвучный» [4, т. 63, с. 338].

Речь шла не только о хлебе насущном, но о земле и о тех, кто на ней трудится: «От начала века тянутся труд с праздностью, а хлеб с тунеядством... земледельцы ненавидят барчуков, а белоручки гнушаются трудящимися. Вот эту-то скрытую в сердцах ненависть я и хочу вывести на середину и представить перед очи всего мира, пусть вселенная вся разберет, кто из них прав, кто не прав, труд или роскошь, хлеб или тунеядство» [2, с. 69].

Спустя некоторое время Толстой сообщал в письме самому Бондареву о том, что дело людей, познавших истину, исполнять ее, хотя это может затянуться на века: «...не скоро деревья растут, а мы их сажаем же их и бережем, и не мы, так другие дождутся плода... жатва большая, и одному не сжать. Да коле каждый так-то свое дело делает, то и сберется жатва хозяина,

и не оставит он доброго работника. Только бы не зарывать талант в землю, только бы исполнять волю пославшего нас. А воля пославшего в том, чтобы каждый в поте лица добывал хлеб, и это надо толковать людям, и они поймут это, потому что совесть обличает их. Желаю вам успеха в вашем деле, оно же и мое дело, и благодарю вас за ваше писание; оно мне было в большую пользу и радость» [4, т. 63, с. 277].

Рукопись Т. М. Бондарева составляла двести страниц текста и начиналась со 145 вопросов о земле, труде и хлебе. Земля, по мнению Бондарева, должна принадлежать работающим на ней, а чтобы не было распрей за лучший надел, каждый человек без исключения тридцать дней в году будет работать хлеб своими руками и тогда вдохновенный земледельческий труд соединит вселенную воедино, поставив на путь.

Врач Сергей Яковлевич Елпатьевский хотел было растолковать старцу, что агроном, доктор, статист - каждый на земле должен заниматься своим делом, принося общую пользу обществу, но Бондарев стоял на своем, приводя единственный и неоспоримый аргумент: «...когда тебе было два года от роду, ты и тогда уже умел есть хлеб, а работать его за столько лет не научился» [3, с. 34].

Бондарева возмущала позиция стороннего наблюдателя, равнодушного к труду землепашца, ибо только этот труд сопряжен напрямую с жизнедеятельностью человека: «Хлеба ради страдают близкие к родам женщины, то есть еще во чреве дитя, а хлеба ради уже страдает, которого еще не ело. Малютки в колыбели там же мучаются от ветра и насекомых, все тело обгорело и кровавыми волдырями облилось, никакая рачительная нянька не может спасти его от этого. Семидесятилетние старики и старухи нагнуться не могут, на коленях ползают, а жнут. Семилетние дети также по возможности своей помогают. А тридцати лет, как бык, ходит здоровенный мужчина и весь свой век, заложивши руки в карманы, припевает, да посвистывает и ждет, когда эти бедные страдалцы положат ему в рот кусок хлеба» [1, с. 79].

Узнав о том, что появились сельскохозяйственные машины, споредь поинтересовался, доступны ли по цене они окажутся крестьянам? Местные интеллигенты объяснили крестьянину, что пока техника, конечно, очень дорогая, но создатели ее, несомненно, были отмечены правительством. Бондарев обиделся: «Если кто сделает незначительное и маловажное изобретение - вы удостоиваете его награды медалью с надписью «За трудолюбие и искусство». Было ли от начала века, кто бы получил за хлебно трудолюбие и искусство награду? Не было! Из бедных людей, у которых до десятка детей малых, отец и мать - дряхлые старики, и они их кормят, да еще из одного и продают частицу на подати другие домашние надобности, получили ли из них хотя бы из тысячи один? Нет!» [1, с. 80].

Бондарев чувствует личную ответственность за устройство благосостояния народа. В своих посланиях он без обиняков обращается к правительству, по его уразумению, отлынивавшему от своих прямых обязанностей, с требованием решить земельный вопрос: «Ты, правительство, как меня, Бондарева, признаешь: умным или глупым? Хорошим или полезным? Это твое дело, а я себя признаю верным ходатаем о благополучии всего мира, то есть разыскиваю меры и средства, чем и как избавиться от нищеты. А это дело не

малое, важное, его не всякий и не каждый не вдруг и не сразу сделает» [1, с. 93].

Сибирский правдоискатель предлагал признать крестьянство полноправным хозяином земли, уважать и по заслугам оценивать его нелегкий, но такой важный в масштабах государства труд. Один из немногих, он отказался от приниженного раболепия перед правительством, обращаясь к нему «на ты»: «Если же тебе помещиков и других богачей жалко, то вынь из своего кармана да дай ему. Нет, для тебя своей собственности жалко, потому из чужого кармана тащишь и тем искренних своих друзей даришь, то есть последний кусок хлеба у бедного человека с рук вырвешь (это землю) и тем друзей своих одаришь. Ты своим добром подари его» [1, с. 92].

Так, добываясь истины, правосудия и милосердия друг к другу, Бондарев боготворил земледельческий труд. Не ради наслаждения, не в силу необходимости, не во имя искупления какой-либо вины, а как первородный закон: «Прошу вас, други мои читатели, в продолжение чтения этого не упускать из вида того, что будто бы я один только хлебный труд ценю дорого, а прочие и прочие труды признаю дешевыми. Нет, прошу не воображать этого. Все труды полезны, и все они душеспасительны, но тысячу тысячей и тьмы дороже всех хлебный труд, потому что в нем состоит жизнь, а кроме его голодная и долго мучительная неизбежная смерть» [1, с. 70]. Вот почему он горячей огню пек и холодней мороза знобил инертное правительство.

Прочитав рукопись сибирского мыслителя, Лев Николаевич Толстой писал В. С. Лебеву: «Вчера я получил через редакцию «Русской мысли» рукописи Бондарева, присланные вами. Мое мнение, что вся русская мысль (конечно, не журнал) с тех пор, как она выражается, не произвела с своими университетами, академиями, книгами и журналами ничего подобного по значительности, силе и ясности... Это не шутка и не интересное проявление мужицкой литературы, а это событие в жизни не только русского народа, но и всего человечества. Вчера я прочел рукопись в своем семейном кругу, и все встали после прочтения молча и пристыженные разошлись. Все как будто знакомо, но никогда не было так просто и так ясно выражено, без того лишнего, что невольно входит в наши интеллигентные рассуждения» [4, т. 63, с. 335].

В письме от 16 августа 1885 года Лев Николаевич уведомлял Бондарева: «То, что выговорите, это святая истина, и то, что вы сказали, не пройдет даром; оно обличит неправду людей. Я буду стараться разяснять то же самое» [4, т. 63, с. 276]. Другу своему, П. И. Бирюкову, Лев Николаевич признавался: «Очень уж пробрал меня Бондарев. Я не могу опомниться от полученного впечатления» [4, т. 63, с. 363].

Общественный идеал самоучки-публициста - всем трудиться на общей земле - был близок Толстому, перешедшему к тому времени на позиции патриархального крестьянства. Он разделял негодование земледельца по поводу туенядцев и пытался успокоить Бондарева, убеждая его во всепрощении: «Не тужите и о том, что ваши близкие вас не понимают и не ценят. Что вам за дело? Вы ведь не для славы человеческой трудились. А дело ваше принесло плоды и принесет, только не придется нам видеть их и вкушать от них. Я знаю по себе, что ваше писание много помогло людям и будет

помогать. А чтобы сразу все так сделалось - этого нельзя и ждать не надо. Заставить всех силком трудиться никак нельзя потому, что сила-то вся в руках тех, которые не хотят трудиться» [4, т. 63, с. 276].

Вместе с тем Л. Н. Толстой заверял Бондарева в том, что постарается издать книгу крестьянина: «...приложу все старания, чтобы она была напечатана, как вы хотите, без всякого приложения и отнятия. Из вашей статьи я почерпнул много полезного для людей, и в этой книге, которую пишу об этом же предмете, и упомянул, что я почерпнул это не от ученых и мудрых мира сего, но от крестьянина Т. М. Бондарева. Я думаю так, что если человек понял истину и высказал или написал ее, то она не пропадет. Плохой тот пахарь, который оглядывается назад: много ли он напахал» [4, т. 63, с. 332-333].

В 1888 году Толстому удалось в сокращенном виде напечатать мысли Бондарева под заголовком «Трудолюбие, или торжество земледельца» в № 12-13 журнала «Русское дело». В Предисловии редактор замечал: «Сочинение почтенного старика-земледельца имеет и свои несомненные достоинства. По мысли оно интересно как протест против того неуважения, с каким наше необразованное общество и государство относится к земледельческому труду. По форме - как удивительно простое непозитическое произведение, полное чарующей искренности» [3, с. 12].

«Русскому делу» не случайно стиль «Труда» Тимофея Бондарева показался близким к Даниилу Заточнику, Протопопу Аввакуму и т.п. «Нам эта рукопись живо напомнила древние произведения народного творчества, ставшие историческим достоянием нашей литературы. Есть еще на Руси уголок, где в полной силе царят простота и искренность XIV-XVI веков: голос оттуда» [3, с. 13].

Номера этих журналов были уничтожены сразу после их выхода, а редактор «Русского дела» получил предостережение от министра за его «вредное направление». Узнав об этом, Бондарев выразил Енисейскому губернатору в письменной форме свое крайнее возмущение: два великих литератора, Глеб Успенский и Лев Толстой «на всевозможные лады хвалят, превозносят, выше облак поднимают и всему свету показывают одобрение моему учению, с целью пожелания обратить всю вселенную на сказанный путь благочестия» в книге, которую в глаза никто не видел. Стало быть, «похвалу, одобрение и возвышенность моему сочинению печатать можно, а самого учения, то есть ту вещь, которая одобряется, в свет выпустить нельзя» [2, с. 59].

Практичный крестьянин предпринял попытку лично встретиться с авторитетным писателем и договориться с ним о частностях в распространении своего главного труда. Запасшись сухарями и вяленым мясом, он по весенней распутице сумел преодолеть ледниковые вершины Алатау, переночевать в доме города Кузнецка, где жил в 1858 году Ф. М. Достоевский, полюбоваться старинной крепостью, построенной по приказу Петра I шведскими пленными. Но, к сожалению, местные полицейские чины не поняли объяснений крестьянина, не осознали необходимости его встречи с графом и вернули ходока в Иудино, где его уже ждало обвинение «в безвестной отлучке». Оставалось обращаться к Толстому только в письмах.

В это время Лев Николаевич предпринимает попытку напечатать труд сибирского мыслителя за границей. Спонсором стал известный в Сибири меценат И. М. Сибиряков, который обговорил условия с издательством Фламариона в Париже. Посредниками между издательством и Толстым стали братья Эмиль и Амадей Пажес.

Пажесы издали книгу Бондарева на французском языке с предваряющей статьей Л. Н. Толстого «Труд и теория Бондарева» под названием «Мужик Т. Бондарев». Спустя только пять лет после выхода трактата на французском языке экземпляр нашел своего тезку, но понадобилось еще три года, чтобы Бондареву перевели книгу. Он прочел перевод, но остался очень недоволен: «Как ссудомлена да исковеркана!». Прослышавший о реакции автора на французскую редакцию книги, Лев Николаевич в письме (от 11 сентября 1898 года) успокаивал Бондарева: «Напрасно ты думаешь, что книга твоя переводом испорчена. В ней переведено все самое существенное... Переведена же она на французский язык прекрасно и читается хорошо. От души желаю тебе душевного спокойствия и в жизни и в встрече близко уже предстоящей нам смерти...» [4, т. 71, с. 438].

Пророчество великого графа сбылось: адресат не успел получить письма. После трехдневной болезни он умер 3 ноября 1898 года.

Обещание ознакомить читающую публику с мыслями крестьянского философа-самоучки Толстой сдержал и «необыкновенную правду» мужика великий граф воплотил в своих статьях «Конец света», «Обращение к русским людям», «Великий грех», в которых лейтмотивом провел мысль об отчуждении земли у помещиков и передаче ее крестьянам.

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ВАСИЛИЙ ВАЛЕНТИНОВИЧ ШЛЕПИН / VASILIIY SHLEPIN**НАЗНАЧЕНИЕ ЧЕЛОВЕКА****THE DESTINY OF MAN****Резюме / Abstract**

В настоящее время назрела необходимость создания целостного представления о назначении человека, мировоззренчески основанного на догматах, антропологии и нравственно-аскетическом учении Православной Церкви.

Currently, there is a need to create a holistic view of the destiny of man, ideologically based on dogma, anthropology, moral and ascetic doctrine of the Orthodox Church.

Введение

*Сейчас насущно важно пробудить в людях
истинно христианский дух,
христианский взгляд на жизнь
и христианское понимание смысла жизни.*

архим. Иоанн (Крестьянкин)

Земная жизнь христианина по слову свт. Игнатия (Брянчанинова) должна быть школой приготовления к жизни вечной. Главным препятствием на этом пути являются последствия первородного греха, внесшего расстройство в духовную и телесную природу людей.

По слову св. Григория Синаита: «Если мы не уведаем, какими нас создал Бог, то не познаем и того, какими нас создал грех». Исказив в людях образ Божий, грех не уничтожил его (Быт. 9:6), и духовная природа человека осталась восприимчивой к добру и помощи Божией (Рим. 1:19), сохранила стремление к истине и свободу воли. Тем не менее, своими силами человек не способен преодолеть греховную поврежденность своей природы. Именно поэтому для спасения человека Богом к жизни вечной были нужны: Боговоплощение (Ин. 1:14), крестная смерть (Ин. 19:30), воскресение Сына Божия (Лк. 24:6), создание на земле Церкви Христовой как особого места предуготовления души человека и устранения препятствий на пути к жизни вечной [2].

Назначение человека по отношению к Богу

О назначении человека по отношению к Богу говорит св. апостол Павел: «Бог, сотворивший мир и все, что в нем, Он, будучи Господом неба и земли, не в рукотворенных храмах живет и не требует служения рук человеческих, [как бы] имеющий в чем-либо нужду, Сам давая всему жизнь и дыхание и все. От одной крови Он произвел весь род человеческий для обитания по всему лицу земли, назначив предопределенные времена и пределы их обитанию, дабы они

искали Бога, не ощутят ли Его и не найдут ли, хотя Он и недалеко от каждого из нас» (Деян. 17, 24-27). Свт. Иоанн Златоуст следующим образом комментирует этот стих: «Это значит, что Бог не только дал нам для жизни дыхание и все, но что важнее всего, открыл путь к познанию Его, даровал то, что через это мы можем найти и достигнуть Его» [1].

Св. прав. Иоанн Кронштадтский пишет: «Тобою, Господи, живу, Тобою дышу, вижу, слышу, осязаю, обоняю. Тобою мыслю, чувствую, воображаю, радуюсь, помятую, упокоеваюсь, каюсь, очищаюсь, укрепляюсь, исцеляюсь, просвещаюсь, избавляюсь от врагов видимых и невидимых, торжествую победы над страстями лъстивыми и губительными. Тобою и Тебя исповедаю, прославляю, благодарю, люблю <...> С Тобою умру и с Тобою уповаю воскреснуть от мертвых и жить с Тобою и в Тебе во веки бесконечные» [3].

Любовь к Богу содержит в себе и любовь к ближнему (1 Ин. 4:21). Все люди – братья и сестры (Быт. 1:27).

Таким образом, назначение человека по отношению к Богу есть познание Бога, соединение с Богом, служение Ему.

Назначение человека по отношению к самому себе

Назначение по отношению к самому себе заключается в том, чтобы через раскрытие сил и способностей, через деятельное устремление и приближение к своему первообразу достичь полной, возможной для конечного существа, меры богоподобия, т. е. теснейшего единения с Богом, причастия Божественного естества, а вместе с тем и возможности участия в Божественном блаженстве. Практически назначение человека по отношению к Богу и по отношению к самому себе в значительной степени совпадают. Разница в акцентах.

Назначение человека по отношению к Богу предполагает, прежде всего, цель человеческой жизни, выражающуюся в познании Бога и соединении с Ним. Назначение человека по отношению к самому себе выражается в том подвиге веры, к которому призван человек для того, чтобы этой цели достичь [1]. Священное Писание говорит о цели человеческой жизни как о достижении совершенства в Боге и прославлении Его: «Да светит свет ваш пред людьми, чтобы они видели ваши добрые дела и прославляли Отца вашего Небесного» (Мф. 5:16), «итак, будьте совершенны, как совершен Отец ваш Небесный» (Мф. 5:48).

В других местах Священного Писания говорится о назначении человека по отношению к себе как о возрастании в любви, посредством которой человек соединяется с Богом и обретает вечное блаженство: «Бог есть любовь, и пребывающий в любви пребывает в Боге, и Бог в нем» (1 Ин. 4:16), «не видел того глаз, не слышало ухо, и не приходило то на сердце человеку, что приготовил Бог любящим Его» (1 Кор. 2:9).

В любви к Богу заключается и любовь к самому себе. Если человек любит Бога, то тем самым должен любить и себя, как существо, причастное Божественному началу. Связь человека с Богом затрагивает и охватывает всего человека как единое целое. В составе, в природе человека нельзя выделить никакой части, которая целиком заключала бы в себе все то, что в нем причастно высшему, Божественному бытию. Причастность к Богу,

способность к Богообщению, к соединению с Божественным, есть достояние всего человека в целом, которое не может быть исключительно приписано никакой из частей его природы. Поэтому первая задача человека в осуществлении своего назначения – достижение единства и цельности человека.

В своем эмпирическом бытии человек обычно далек от того, чтобы быть цельностью и единством: его разум блуждает, отвлекаясь помыслами; душа колеблется страстями; тело предаётся излишествам. Вследствие этого человеку, в первую очередь, нужно выйти из внутренней разрозненности и раздробленности, необходимо собрать себя из рассеяния в единство.

Эта духовная работа рассматривается как сведение, сосредоточение всего человека, всех его сил и способностей, всех помыслов и желаний в одну точку, в некий внутренний центр, который в православной аскетике называется сердцем.

Труд самособирания человека осуществляется всем его существом. В него вовлекается все содержание человека, и все оно должно подвергнуться в нем коренному преобразованию [5]. Иначе «когда естество отойдет от свойственного ему чина, тогда открываются в нем страсти» [4, с. 23].

Разделение, возникшее между человеком и Богом, требует преодоления смерти, греха и природы. Путь воссоединения человека с Богом – это путь спасения человека. Однако только Бог может дать человеку возможность обожения. «Ибо благодатью вы спасены через веру, и сие не от вас, Божий дар: не от дел, чтобы никто не хвалился. Ибо мы – Его творение, созданы во Христе Иисусе на добрые дела, которые Бог предназначил нам исполнять» (Ефес. 2:8-10).

Итак, назначение человека по отношению к самому себе состоит в обожении, которое достигается через очищение сердца. «Блаженны чистые сердцем, ибо они Бога узрят» (Мф. 5:8).

Назначение человека по отношению к безличному творению

Замысел Божий о мире подразумевает спасение не только человека, но и всего творения. Апостол Павел говорит, что в конце времен «будет Бог все во всем» (1 Кор. 15:28). Весь тварный космос приобщится Божеству, а не только человек. Поскольку Бог есть полнота жизни, Он желает, чтобы все творение приобщилось этой полноте и стало выражением Божественной жизни, единением в любви, которая составляет образ бытия Бога. Приобщение тварной природы жизни Божества не может быть следствием необходимости, но совершается как дело личностной свободы. Единственной нетварной сущностью, которая способна реализовать свою жизнь как свободу, является человек. По этой причине Священное Писание и святоотеческое Предание видят в человеке посредника, способного привести весь созданный Богом мир к осуществлению его конечной цели.

Х. Яннарас отмечает, что «между тем, чем мир является актуально и тем, чем он призван быть, стоит человеческая свобода, которая только и может преодолеть разрыв между существованием мира и целью этого существования» [1]. В Священном Писании говорится о том, что образ бытия мира, его состояние зависит от духовно-нравственного состояния человека:

«Тварь с надеждою ожидает откровения сынов Божиих, потому что тварь покорилась суете не добровольно, но по воле покорившего ее, в надежде, что и сама тварь освобождена будет от рабства тлению в свободу славы детей Божиих. Ибо знаем, что вся тварь совокупно стенает и мучится донныне» (Рим. 8:19-22).

Если античные авторы называли человека «mikrokosmos», малым миром, то у отцов Церкви, например, у свт. Григория Нисского, встречается наименование «mikrotheos» – малый бог, т.е. существо способное управлять миром, свободно определяться по отношению к природной необходимости. Свт. Григорий Нисский называет человека проводником Божественных действий на всю тварь. Человек, по учению святых отцов, занимает такое место во Вселенной, что только через него весь вещественный мир способен воспринимать и усваивать Божественную благодать. У свт. Григория Нисского написано: «Чтобы земное сопребознеслось с Божественным и единая некая благодать равночестно проходила по всей твари при растворении дольного естества с естеством премирным» [1].

По словам преп. Максима Исповедника, «человек призван воссоединить в себе любовью природу тварную с природой нетварной. Через себя человек соединяет всю совокупность тварного космоса, чувственного и сверхчувственного» [1].

Лосский В. Н. так говорит о замысле Божиим о человеке в его отношении к тварному миру: «Не имея ничего вне себя, кроме одного Бога человеку ничего не оставалось бы, как полностью себя отдать в порыве любви и вручить Ему всю Вселенную, соединенную в его человеческом существе, тогда Сам Бог со Своей стороны отдал бы Себя человеку, который по этому дару, т. е. по благодати, имел бы все то, что Бог имеет по природе, таким образом, совершилось бы обожение человека и всего тварного мира» [3].

Следует заметить, что человек есть бог в силу обожения не в качестве данности, а становится им в процессе духовного преуспевания. Поэтому перед человеком поставлена особая задача: воссоединить в себе всю совокупность тварного бытия; одновременно достигнуть совершенного единения с Богом и таким образом, сообщить состояние обожения всей твари.

Заключение

Высокое назначение человека в том, чтобы стать богом по благодати, принять дар жизни вечной, жить по образу Божию и достигать уподобления Богу – святости. Святость есть активная сила, имеющая глубокое преображающее воздействие на человека и мир. Поэтому назначение человека состоит в полном преображении мира в целом и соединении с Богом.

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ГУЛЬНАР ТУЯКБАЕВНА АЛЬПЕИСОВА / GULNAR ALPEISOVA

МНОГООБРАЗИЕ МИРА В КУЛЬТУРЕ ГОРОДА АСТАНА

DIVERSITY OF THE WORLD IN THE CULTURE OF THE CITY ASTANA

Аннотация / Abstract

The new capital of the Republic of Kazakhstan infrastructure development issues are discussed in this article. The challenges of the world civilization diverse manifestation in its culture are reviewed for the purpose of description of modern city.

Астана, расположившись в самом центре Евразии, притягивает к себе внимание мировой общественности не только как новая столица Казахстана, но и как современная модель многообразных форм культуры. Этот город, выросший на месте провинциального целинного края, превратился в мегаполис мирового класса, в котором воспроизводятся казахские традиции и причудливо трансформируются культурные достижения народов мира.

Как известно, в середине девяностых годов прошлого столетия Президент РК Нурсултан Назарбаев принял неожиданное для многих решение перенести столицу из Алматы, расположенной на юге, в Акмолу – центр республики. Это повлекло за собой кардинальные изменения в инфраструктуре и культуре новой столицы, названной Астана: ведь теперь она должна была соответствовать столичному уровню.

Выступая на открытии первой сессии Мажилиса Парламента третьего созыва, Президент Республики Казахстан Н. Назарбаев сказал, что Астана стала предметом гордости для всех казахстанцев. «Астана – это символ обновления Казахстана, символ неиссякаемой созидательной энергии его многонационального народа. Это символ веры народа, приступившего в далеко не самые легкие времена к возведению новой столицы, в свои собственные силы. Это символ надежды и уверенности нации, обретшей свободу, в своем процветающем будущем, в будущем своих потомков» [3, с. 17].

Будущее Казахстана неразрывно связано с будущим Астаны, которая еще недавно воспринималась как «новая столица», а теперь является неотъемлемой частью нового образа Казахстана, страны, устремленной в XXI век. Современная столица Казахстана растет и преобразуется, становится все более привлекательной для жителей Казахстана и зарубежных гостей, чему немало способствует ее современный архитектурный стиль, в котором переплетаются лучшие традиции европейской и восточной культуры, наиболее полно отражая облик новой столицы как центра экономики, политики и культуры.

Открытие новых музеев, библиотек, концертных залов, выставки, дворцов, архитектурных ансамблей, арок различных уровней, развлекательных центров нового поколения – все это происходит в городе на высоком столичном

уровне. Этот город стал своего рода «портретом» нашего независимого государства, и, как известно, визитной карточкой любого государства всегда была и будет культура во всех её проявлениях.

Астана, являясь гордостью нового Казахстана, стала символом утверждения национальной идеи и объединения страны. «Здесь – первая столица нашего объединенного народа, здесь – наша государственная и национальная идея», – взволнованно сказал писатель Акселеу Сейдимбек. Город, осуществляя межнациональную интеграцию, тем не менее, отражает национальную идею и отстаивает культурный суверенитет, подтверждая мысль В. Виндельбанда о том, что «Культурные формы народов должны сохранять свой собственный характер, подобно формам отдельных индивидов...» [2, с. 16].

Свидетельства этому уникальные архитектурные сооружения: башня Байтерек с его обзорно-смотровыми залами, карта Казахстана «Атамекен», комплекс «Думан», парк «Каменных скульптур». Идея постройки башни Байтерек принадлежит Президенту РК Н. А. Назарбаеву. Табличка, стоящая у основания монумента, передает основную идею ее создания: «Байтерек своим расположением и композиционным строением выражает космогонические представления древних кочевников, по преданиям которых на стыке миров протекает Мировая река». Как известно по древним казахским преданиям на стыке миров протекает Мировая река. На её берегу возвышается Дерево жизни – Байтерек (в переводе с казахского языка – «тополь»), корнями удерживающее землю, а кроной подпирающее небо. Образ Мирового Древа членится по вертикали на три части: верхняя – ветви, средняя – ствол, и нижняя – корни. Она является универсальной концепцией мира, определяет структуру и основные параметры мифопоэтической модели мира. С короной деревьев тянущихся у небу и светилам, с сидящими на ее ветвях птицами, связан весь мир верха – небесный. Со стволом дерева соотносится срединный мир – земной, а корни дерева – низ, соответственной подземный мир. Этот ярко космоцентрический характер философско-эстетического осмысления мира, по мнению Аязбековой С. обусловлен: «тем статусом, которым обладал Кочевник в мировом геополитическом пространстве, когда владение «осью мира» давала ему подспудное осознание владения миром» [1, с. 6]. Такое осознание своего места казахского народа в мировом пространстве предопределило широту, размах, многоуровневость и многомерность его представлений.

В макетных экспонатах «Атамекен» представлен весь Казахстан. За время своего существования этнокомплекс сформировался как организация, представляющая собой подлинное картографическое искусство. Это – культурно-исторический и досуговый центр, раскрывающий культурно-историческое наследие народа, пропагандирующий патриотизм у казахстанцев, способствующий сохранению и обогащению исторической памяти общества, формированию исторического самосознания.

Дух океана посреди казахской степи представлен первый и единственный в странах СНГ проектом развлекательного центра «Думан» Океанариумом. Аквариумы выставочных зон, представляя различные виды ихтиофауны морей и океанов от мелких обитателей до крупных хищников, воплотили мечту жителей степей увидеть морской мир и его обитателей.

В архитектуре столицы Президентский центр культуры Республики Казахстан – одно из самых красивейших зданий. С высоты птичьего полета оно представляет собой круг с расходящимися лучами на четыре стороны света, что символично для традиционной культуры казахского народа. Дань тюркской архитектурной традиции – голубой купол, возвышающийся над землей на 38,5 метров, дарит городу аромат Востока. Созданный по инициативе Президента Казахстана Н. А. Назарбаева «в целях повышения культурного и духовного облика новой столицы Астаны, для ознакомления широкой общественности с историческим достоянием народа Казахстана, достижениями мировой культуры и искусства» (Постановление Правительства Республики Казахстан от 27 октября 2000 г.). Образованный путем слияния Государственного музея Республики Казахстан и Республиканской публичной библиотеки им. С. Сейфуллина, комплекс стал неким «аккумулятором» духовного наследия и культурной традиции казахстанского народа.

Новая столица стала крупным культурным и научным центром Казахстана. Рука прогресса коснулась и главных хранителей информации Библиотек: они оснащаются компьютерной техникой и программным обеспечением. Создана информационная база, ведется работа с электронным каталогом. В столице была создана современная социальная и духовная инфраструктура, открылись отделение Академии наук, новые учебные заведения, Национальная библиотека, Национальный музей, картинная галерея современного искусства, Центр социально-экономических технологий, Бизнес-Центр, детский парк, аквапарк, учреждения культуры и здравоохранения.

В Астане функционирует широкая сеть культурных учреждений мирового типа. В настоящее время действует ряд кинотеатров, музеев, Казахский музыкально-драматический театр имени К. Куанышбаевой, Русский драматический театр имени М. Горького, театр оперы и балета им. К. Байсейитовой, Президентский центр культуры, где расположены библиотека, Дворцы творчества детей и юношества, Дворец «Жастар», Государственная филармония и Казахский национальный университет искусств.

Все великие цивилизации следовали одной заповеди: никогда не пренебрегать культурным наследием прошлого. Многие культурные учреждения бывшего Целинограда сегодня приобрели новое лицо. Например, уникальное по советским временам здание Дворца целинников было отреставрировано, оснащено современным оборудованием и стало главным концертным залом столицы – Конгресс-Холлом. Второе дыхание открылось у театральной жизни Астаны: расширился репертуар театров, обновились труппы. Замечательный подарок получили поклонники оперного искусства и классического танца – Национальный театр оперы и балета. Указом Президента Республики Казахстан Н. А. Назарбаева в связи с объявлением 2000 года Годом поддержки культуры, а также в целях увековечения памяти выдающейся казахской певицы Куляш Байсейитовой этот театр был переименован Национальный театр оперы и балета имени К. Байсейитовой. Кстати, расположен он в бывшем Доме культуры железнодорожников.

Сегодня, Национальный театр оперы и балета – самый молодой музыкальный театр страны, носитель традиций казахской и мировой музыкальной культуры, осмысливающий классическое наследие и

реализующий духовные запросы обновляющегося казахстанского общества. С самого начала репертуарным приоритетом Национального театра были определены шедевры отечественного и мирового музыкального театра, а также создание новых произведений, способствующих развитию оперно-балетного жанра в Казахстане. Первый артистический состав был сформирован из выпускников Казахской Национальной Академии музыки, Казахской Национальной консерватории им. Курмангазы, Алматинского хореографического училища им. А. Селезнева, Евразийского национального университета им. Л. Н. Гумилева, а также из перспективных талантливых артистов и опытных мастеров сцены.

14 октября 2000 года оперой М. Тулебаева «Биржан и Сара» открылся первый театральный сезон. Эта опера была поставлена по личному заказу Президента Республики Казахстан Н. Назарбаева. В последующие сезоны национальный репертуар пополнился другими шедеврами отечественной театрально-музыкальной классики. Значительными событиями в культурной жизни столицы явились постановки жемчужин казахской оперы – спектаклей «Кыз-Жибек» Е. Брусиловского (режиссер-постановщик А. Мамбетов) и «Қамар-сұлу» Е. Рахмадиева.

Много интереснейших событий произошло в театре в 2008 году, в год 10-летия нашей столицы. В период с 1 по 6 июля 2008 г. в г. Астана состоялся IV международный музыкальный фестиваль «Опералия-2008». В центре фестиваля – премьера оперы итальянского композитора Дж. Верди «Отелло». Режиссер-постановщик – Народный артист России Юрий Александров (Санкт-Петербург), главные партии (Отелло, Дездемона, Яго) исполняли солисты оперных театров Италии. Но особенно поразил зрителей Гала-концерт «Звезды мирового балета», в котором приняли участие солисты мировых театральных сцен.

Столица объективно имеет преимущества в культурной сфере: она находится в фокусе всей духовной жизни страны, здесь располагаются главные музеи с их уникальными коллекциями, обязательный пункт гастрольных туров заезжих звёзд – её концертные площадки. Вся история страны представлена в экспонатах Президентского центра культуры Республики Казахстан, прославленные коллективы государственной филармонии участвуют во всех столичных мероприятиях, а представить свои работы в Музее современного искусства – дело престижа, показатель зрелости художника.

За последние годы в сфере культуры города произошло много изменений качественного характера. Существенно увеличилось финансирование, направленное на реализацию бюджетных программ в сфере культуры. Семнадцать разноплановых профессиональных творческих коллективов сегодня работают в столице, участвуя во всех культурно-зрелищных мероприятиях. Для реализации их творческой мысли в столице созданы все условия. Их репертуар – постоянно обновляющийся, креативный поиск, а творчеству присущ свой оригинальный исполнительский почерк. Их профессионализм настолько высок, что его по достоинству оценивают все гастролирующие в Астане выдающиеся дирижеры, музыканты, исполнители.

Достижения столичных творческих коллективов и отдельных исполнителей – предмет особой гордости горожан. Один из коллективов, представляющих культуру столицы на мировой музыкальной арене – Государственный струнный квартет им. Г. Жубановой, который проходил обучение в Высшей школе музыки Королевы Софии в Испании.

Самобытную культуру, народное творчество, обычаи и обряды казахского народа выражают хореографические постановки. Пластика древнего тюркского танца взята за основу нового исторического хореографического проекта «Тұйғындар». Наблюдая за концертной и театральной афишей невозможно не заметить, что в городе каждую неделю идут концерты, как столичных, так и гастролирующих коллективов.

Новое время принесло бывшим советским республикам независимость, но не разрушило межнациональные культурные связи между ними. Традиция проведения культурных дней и по сей день соблюдается странами и городами. Блестяще прошли Дни культуры Астаны в Минске: минчанам была предоставлена возможность насладиться искусством классического балета и концертом оркестра казахских народных инструментов, познакомиться с творчеством народного писателя Мухтара Шаханова. Свежую струю в культуру города внес международный форум «Евразийская культура в новом мире», участниками которого стали видные общественные деятели и представители духовной интеллигенции стран Содружества.

Примечательны новые проекты столицы Казахстана, которые стали традиционными. С большим успехом прошел Международный фестиваль джаза «Астана-блюз» с участием звезд джаза США, России и других стран. Окунуться в историю, познакомиться с этнографией кочевника, положенной на музыку, смогли жители и гости столицы на конкурсе исполнителей народных эпосов и традиционных народных песен назидания – состязания «Жыршы термешілер». Новое содержание приобрело карнавальное шествие – оно олицетворяло развитие народа Казахстана от истоков до современности и называлось «Караван истории». Презентация этих проектов стала возможной благодаря поддержке идей акиматом города. В новом формате готовятся и традиционные фестивали – Международный фестиваль творческой молодежи «Шабьт», фестиваль детского творчества «Балбөбек», с 2010 года ставший республиканским.

Особое место в культуре города занял международный фестиваль традиционного исполнительского искусства «Музыка Великой Степи», прошедший в сентябре этого года, который был организован в рамках Года «Астана культурная столица тюркского мира 2012». На нем были представлены шедевры традиционного вокального и инструментального искусств тюркоязычных народов во всем стилевом и исполнительском многообразии.

Таким образом, формирование современной культуры новой столицы, обусловленное ее особым геополитическим положением и этнокультурной многослойностью, способствует приобретению широкой известности бурно развивающимся городом. В нем широко претворены принципы толерантности, сформированные кочевой цивилизацией: открытость, взаимовлияние и рецепция культурных традиций, признание возможности существования

различных верований, духовных учений, принятие условий для диалога с другими культурами. Об этом свидетельствовали многие известные путешественники, географы, историки. Из древнекитайских хроник, историографических очерков средневековья, записок европейских путешественников, среди которых знаменитые Плано Карпини, Рубрук, Марко Поло и многие другие, культура кочевников сформировалась как толерантная система. Именно такая система создала условия для осуществления взаимовыгодного диалога с другими культурами, о чем было записано и оговорено во многих постановлениях Тюркского каганата и позднее Казахского ханства. Как совершенно правильно отметил Президент Республики Казахстан Н. А. Назарбаев: «Для многовековой культуры казахского народа толерантность является поведенческой нормой, совершенно естественным жизненным принципом поведения людей. Именно поэтому, все, кто родился в Казахстане, считают его своей Родиной и землей» [5, с. 7].

Эти кочевнические принципы толерантности проявлены в культурной реальности новой столицы с необычайной силой и остротой. Так четыре грани нашего Дворца мира и согласия, выполненного в виде Пирамиды, равномерно обращены к четырем сторонам света. Это архитектурное сооружение символизирует независимый Казахстан, дружеские объятия которого раскрыты для представителей всех наций и вероисповеданий.

Сохранив собственную национальную уникальность, городская среда была обеспечена возможностью взаимодействия с культурами народов мира. Как известно, по предложению главы Республики Казахстан, Генеральная Ассамблея ООН объявила 2010 год Международным Годом сближения культур. Инициативы нашего Президента в развитии глобального диалога культур известны всему мировому сообществу.

Уникальный вклад Н. Назарбаева в формирование диалога культур, который сегодня представлен в мире как казахстанский уникальный диалогический опыт. Идея концепции диалога культур была сформирована Президентом Республики Казахстан в контексте Стратегии – 2030 и прошла красной нитью в его трудах, выступлениях на различных форумах, съездах, озвученных им в ежегодных Посланиях народу Казахстана и в практических проектах. «Закрытое общество – это возможность полета в клетке, пусть даже очень большой. Открытое общество – это возможность полета в небе. И нам, сообразно нашей истории и свободному духу, все-таки ближе последняя аллегория – орел, парящий под ярким солнцем в бесконечном степном небе» [4, с. 233]. Астана стала проводником идей Н. А. Назарбаева и благодаря его креативной деятельности эти идеи были реализованы в культурном многообразии столицы Казахстана.

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**ЕЛИЗАВЕТА АЛЕКСАНДРОВНА ОМЕЛЬЧЕНКО, ЛЮБОВЬ
СЕРГЕЕВНА НЕМЧИНОВА / ELIZAVETA OMELCHENKO, LUBOV
NEMCHINOVA**

**НАПРАВЛЕНИЯ ИЗУЧЕНИЯ САМОВЫРАЖЕНИЯ И КУЛЬТУРЫ
САМОВЫРАЖЕНИЯ В ПЕДАГОГИКЕ И ПСИХОЛОГИИ В КОНТЕКСТЕ
ПРОБЛЕМ ТОЛЕРАНТНОГО ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКОГО ОБЩЕНИЯ**

**THE STUDY OF SELF-EXPRESSION AND CULTURE OF SELF-
EXPRESSION IN PEDAGOGY AND PSYCHOLOGY IN THE CONTEXT OF
THE PROBLEMS OF TOLERANT PEDAGOGICAL COMMUNICATION**

Аннотация / Abstract

В статье рассматриваются вопросы, показывающие насколько в педагогике и психологии изучены вопросы самовыражения и культуры самовыражения человека в разные возрастные периоды его жизни. Акцент сделан на том, как соответствующие исследования раскрывают проблемы толерантного педагогического общения.

The article deals with the problem of study's degree in pedagogy and psychology the questions of people's self-expression and culture of self-expression in the different age periods. The special attention is paid to how these researches open problems of tolerant pedagogical communication

В психолого-педагогических науках уже на протяжении примерно десяти лет активно исследуются проблемы, так или иначе связанные с феноменом самовыражения. Процесс самовыражения человека с самого раннего детства связан с общением. Без него наша жизнь немыслима, потому что стремление общаться относится к числу основных потребностей личности. С его помощью осуществляется развитие индивида как члена общества, происходит его духовное, физическое совершенствование. Общение позволяет каждому познавать других людей и самого себя.

Считается, что общение – сложный и многоплановый процесс установления, развития контактов между отдельными субъектами, их группами. Он возникает в силу того, что люди по своей природе стремятся к совместной деятельности. В ней они вступают во взаимодействие, осуществить которое без общения невозможно. В ходе него происходит обмен информацией, действиями, восприятие и оценка партнера. Иными словами, проявляются такие составляющие общения, как коммуникативная сторона, интеракции, взаимная перцепция.

Названные стороны способствуют становлению личностных качеств человека. При этом каждая личность остается индивидуальностью с только ей присущими физическими, духовными характеристиками, интересами, мыслями, чувствами. Их наиболее ярко можно проявить, выразить, продемонстрировать в общении по схеме «человек – человек». А оно не

обходится без самовыражения, которое будем понимать как стремление субъекта передать другим то, что ценно, значимо для него.

Общение, позволяющее личности полноценно выразить себя наиболее психологически насыщено и сложно, т. к. может отличаться особой одухотворенностью, динамизмом, живостью. Поэтому с ним связаны наибольшие сложности при проведении психолого-педагогических исследований [14].

В современной педагогике при изучении общения сделан акцент на взаимодействии между субъектами педагогического процесса, а как известно, любое взаимодействие предполагает самовыражение субъектов. Такое взаимодействие подразумевает совместную деятельность педагога и обучающихся или воспитанников, характеризующуюся взаимовосприятием, принятием индивидуальных особенностей личности, поддержкой друг друга, доверием.

Общение между педагогом и обучающимися или воспитанниками, в ходе которого педагог решает учебные, воспитательные и личностно-развивающие задачи принято называть педагогическим. Оно бывает социально или личностно ориентированным. Отсюда следует специфика этого вида общения, связанная с его направлением на реализацию целей развития личности. Для их достижения ему следует быть эмоционально-комфортным, личностно-развивающим, дающим возможность субъектам педагогического процесса выразить себя.

Вступая в педагогическое общение, педагогу необходимо проявлять профессионализм, состоящий в умении преодолеть естественные трудности общения с представителями подрастающего поколения, возникающие из-за различий в возрасте, уровне подготовки, культурном уровне, мировоззрении, жизненном опыте. Это поможет обучающимся или воспитанникам обрести уверенность в своей способности вступать в общение с педагогом в качестве полноправных партнеров.

Профессионализм педагога может формироваться на основе его готовности и способности жить, конструктивно действовать в многообразном мире, состоящем из разных людей со своими особенностями, желаниями, предпочтениями. Еще более важно видеть таких людей в своих учениках и воспитанниках. Иными словами, педагогу необходимо обладать качеством толерантности и умениями толерантного педагогического общения.

Становление толерантной личности является в современном мире проблемой, настоятельно требующей решения. Особенно это касается работников сферы образования, призванных содействовать развитию у подрастающего поколения следующих качеств толерантной личности:

- «принятие себя и других людей такими, какие они есть;
- установление доброжелательных отношений с окружающими;
- способность к глубокому пониманию жизни;
- активное восприятие действительности и способность хорошо в ней ориентироваться;
- развитие творческих способностей;
- умение полагаться на свой опыт, разум и чувства;
- способность брать на себя ответственность;

– приложение усилий для достижения поставленных целей» [7, с. 77].

Эти качества позволяют говорить о возможности воспитать чутких, ответственных, открытых к восприятию других культур людей, которые будут выражать себя, исходя не только из собственных желаний, но и из того, что возможно или необходимо в рамках культуры. Такие люди будут способны ценить свободу, уважать человеческое достоинство и индивидуальные особенности тех, кто их окружает.

Так как толерантность является качеством личности, имеющим профессиональную значимость в деятельности педагога, вопрос о его развитии представляет интерес для исследователей из области педагогики и психологии.

Толерантность педагога проявляется в его терпимости и целеустремленности при осуществлении своих замыслов, в выдержке и самообладании даже в самых неблагоприятных ситуациях, в умении держать себя в руках в условиях отрицательных эмоциональных воздействий со стороны других людей.

Развитие толерантности у педагога способствует установлению гармоничных отношений с обучающимися и воспитанниками, их родителями, коллегами, окружающим миром в целом. В этом случае толерантность педагога проявится в особенностях его общения с субъектами педагогического процесса и отразится в установлении положительных отношений с ними, принятии их такими, какие они есть, в способности нести ответственность за результаты своего труда, за обученность или воспитанность детей. Такое общение, с нашей точки зрения, можно назвать толерантным.

Проблема толерантного общения в современной педагогической науке, несмотря на многие исследования в области общения и педагогического общения, изучена недостаточно, требует дальнейшего исследования.

Подчеркнем, что толерантное педагогическое общение пронизано самовыражением его субъектов. В настоящее время количество проведенных исследований самовыражения позволяет выполнить систематизацию изученных в этой сфере вопросов и перечислить направления научных исследований самовыражения, например, в зависимости от возраста осуществляющего самовыражение субъекта. Далее опишем каждое из них.

1. Изучение средств самовыражения детей дошкольного возраста и условий, создание которых позволяет детям трех-семи лет выразить себя.

К этому направлению отнесем работы Е. В. Беляковой [2], В. И. Салютновой [16], А. Ф. Яфальян [21].

Можно заметить, что спектр выполненных в этом направлении работ не широк. Перед педагогами и психологами открывается довольно много возможностей для более детального изучения научных проблем, связанных с тем, как происходит самовыражение дошкольников. Например, не изучено самовыражение детей этого возраста в игре, в общении в целом и в толерантном общении в частности. Пока осталось без внимания самовыражение дошкольников в группах детского сада и на занятиях в коммерческих центрах развития ребенка. Представляет интерес анализ условий, которые целесообразно создавать педагогу или родителям для придания положительной направленности самовыражению ребенка. Не изучено влияние самовыражения взрослых людей из ближайшего окружения

дошкольника на то, какие будут складываться у него особенности самовыражения.

2. Анализ возможностей музыки и искусства для самовыражения учеников начальной школы.

Это направление представляют работы С. С. Брикуновой [3], М. В. Деньгиной [6].

Очевидно, что особенности, средства, способы, условия самовыражения детей в этом возрасте практически не изучены. С научной точки зрения такие исследования были бы интересны тем, что мы смогли бы понять как происходит переход от способов самовыражения, которыми ребенок пользовался в детском саду к новым, пока еще ему неизвестным способам, существующим в образовательном процессе начальной школы. Обойтись без такого перехода не удастся, т. к. в этот период происходит существенное изменение образа жизни растущего человека, требующее приспособления к новой социальной роли, к новым условиям жизнедеятельности.

Здесь было бы полезно выяснить, насколько создание условий для самовыражения ребенка в школе в первые недели и месяцы его обучения сказывается на успешности прохождения им адаптационного периода.

Не исследован вопрос о возможностях, имеющихся в каждом учебном предмете начальной школы для самовыражения. Кроме того, важно говорить не просто о самовыражении, а об его границах, объективно возникающих из-за особенностей протекания педагогического процесса в современных школах. Заметим, что для успешного обучения самовыражение субъекта должно происходить, с одной стороны, с учетом его индивидуальных особенностей, а с другой – с ориентацией на нормы, правила, подлежащие обязательному соблюдению в школе. В связи с этим возникает необходимость в рассмотрении культуры самовыражения учащихся начальной школы. Эта культура не мыслится без общения детей с родителями, педагогами. В последнем случае возникает проблема осмысления педагогического общения и, в частности, толерантного педагогического общения, способного привносить в учебный и воспитательный процесс понимание детьми и педагогом друг друга, умение педагога помочь каждому ребенку, поддержать его, создать условия для раскрытия его склонностей, способностей, для проявления ребенком себя, для его самовыражения.

3. Решение проблем, связанных со способами, средствами, формами и качественными характеристиками самовыражения учащихся основной и старшей школы.

В качестве примера можно привести работы В. И. Гладилиной [4], Н. В. Грушко [5], Д. М. Мирзоевой [10], Ю. Е. Мужичковой [12], Е. А. Шиндяевой [19], В. Ф. Шкель [20].

Отметим, что это направление в большей степени интересно педагогам и психологам и лучше изучено, хотя совершенно не рассмотрены вопросы, связанные с направленностью самовыражения подростков, юношей. А это важно в силу того, что к подростковому возрасту в человеческом опыте накапливается большое количество моделей поведения, взаимодействия, общения (в том числе, возможно, толерантного) и самовыражения. В этот период обучающиеся осмысливают свои индивидуальные особенности,

стремятся оценивать себя и других. Каждый из них выбирает то, каким ему становиться. Поэтому целесообразно изучать не столько разные особенности самовыражения человека в это время, сколько их комплекс, складывающийся в такое образование, как культура самовыражения и задающий положительную направленность его самовыражению.

В этом направлении не представлены работы, описывающие характеристики разных видов самовыражения учащихся, не проанализированы условия, позволяющие им выразить себя в разных учебных предметах, в процессе воспитания, в общении между сверстниками, в педагогическом и толерантном педагогическом общении. Изучать эти и многие другие вопросы, связанные с самовыражением в этом возрасте нужно, т. к. самовыражение является одной из потребностей человека, которая вне зависимости от осознания субъектом ее наличия требует обязательного удовлетворения. Отрицательные последствия, возникающие, если этого не происходит, описаны психологами.

4. Анализ творческого самовыражения студентов.

Здесь назовем работы А. М. Аль-Рикаби [1], Е. М. Зыковой [8], А. С. Косоговой [9] и др.

Поле решенных вопросов из области интересующей нас проблемы здесь ограничено одним видом самовыражения. Его можно было бы расширить за счет изучения культуры самовыражения студентов, особенностей их самовыражения в аудиторной и внеаудиторной деятельности. Было бы интересно связать становление их культуры самовыражения с будущей профессиональной деятельностью, рассмотреть возможности подготовки студентов к самовыражению в профессии. Не изучен вопрос о том, как происходит самовыражение студентов в период адаптации к обучению в учреждениях среднего и высшего профессионального образования, т. к. переход со ступени школьного образования на следующую – более высокую, ставит человека перед необходимостью менять свое поведение, строить его новые модели, отвечающие новым условиям, в которых он оказывается.

Совершенно нет работ, касающихся рассмотрения специфики педагогического и толерантного педагогического общения в контексте обучения, воспитания в средних или высших учебных заведениях во взаимосвязи со спецификой самовыражения студентов и проявлениями их культуры самовыражения.

5. Последнее направление связано с попытками охарактеризовать виды и средства самовыражения взрослых людей.

В качестве примера приведем работы Ю. В. Мочаловой [11], И. В. Тарасовой [17], А. А. Филозоф [18] и др.

Среди названных работ отсутствуют такие, которые были бы посвящены культуре самовыражения, особенностям толерантного педагогического общения в структуре культуры самовыражения, специфике самовыражения в разные периоды взрослости.

В целом, можно сделать вывод о том, что в названных диссертационных исследованиях изучаются средства, способы, формы и виды самовыражения. Однако, спектр работ по интересующей нас проблематике довольно узок, т. к. остаются не изученными разные виды самовыражения, например,

самовыражение в учебной, научной, трудовой, профессиональной деятельности и т. д. Практически не представлены работы, в которых было бы проанализировано создание условий для самовыражения человека в разные возрастные периоды его жизни. Не акцентировано внимание на направленности самовыражения («положительные», «отрицательные», «нейтральные» проявления человеком самого себя). Самовыражение не связывается с историческим и культурным временем, в котором существует человек.

Исследования культуры самовыражения представлены только двумя работами. Первая написана Е. А. Омельченко [13], вторая – С. А. Прохоровой [15]. Обе посвящены рассмотрению этого феномена у подростков.

Подводя итог анализу изученности в педагогике и психологии проблем самовыражения и культуры самовыражения в контексте толерантного педагогического общения, подчеркнем наличие здесь широкого поля интересной и разнообразной проблематики, ждущей своего исследования.

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ИРИНА АНАТОЛЬЕВНА ПРИЛУЦКАЯ / IRYNA PRYLUTSKAYA

ИНФРАСТРУКТУРНОЕ ОБЕСПЕЧЕНИЕ РАЗВИТИЯ ИННОВАЦИОННОГО ПРЕДПРИНИМАТЕЛЬСТВА В УКРАИНЕ

INFRASTRUCTURAL SUPPORT OF INNOVATIVE ENTREPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN UKRAINE

Аннотация / Abstract

В статье раскрыты теоретические основы инфраструктурного обеспечения развития инновационного предпринимательства. Разработаны рекомендации улучшения инновационной инфраструктуры в Украине.

The paper studies the theoretical bases of infrastructural support of development of innovative entrepreneurship. The study elaborates the recommendations to improve the innovative infrastructure in Ukraine.

Введение

В быстро развивающемся современном мире, особое значение приобретает вопрос повышения конкурентоспособности товаров и услуг, произведенных национальной экономикой. Этот факт обусловлен информатизацией и стремительным развитием технологий не только в сфере материального производства, но и коммуникаций, что позволило осуществлять сбыт продуктов деятельности предприятий значительно эффективнее, тем самым обострив конкурентную борьбу во всех сферах бизнеса. Основным средством достижения преимущества в таких условиях возникает успешная инновационная деятельность, что позволяет предприятиям-новаторам приспосабливаться к существующим требованиям среды и потребностей клиентов. Это позволяет занимать лидирующие позиции на рынке, а также создавать совершенно новые его сегменты, тем самым предупреждая возникновение нежелательных для себя тенденций в виде снижения уровня конкурентоспособности через ее старение.

Нововведения инновационных предприятий направлены на динамичное развитие всех сфер экономики и непрерывное повышение качества продукции. На нынешнем этапе этого развития увеличиваются государственные расходы на научно-исследовательские разработки и изменения в системе образования и профессиональной подготовки специалистов, а также на создание наукоемких производств и формирование национальных инновационных систем.

Сегодня выход на новый уровень развития национальной экономики требует от менеджеров всех звеньев обеспечения перехода к устойчивому инновационному развитию, общая концепция которого предусматривает необходимость наличия опосредованного знаниями баланса между удовлетворением современных потребностей и защитой интересов будущих поколений, в частности их потребность в безопасной и здоровой среде.

Целью инновационной деятельности является сочетание обособленных звеньев «наука» и «производство», однако такое сочетание возможно при

посредничестве инновационной инфраструктуры. Тесное и эффективное взаимодействие элементов этой инфраструктуры позволит производить продукцию, оказывать услуги, которые будут конкурентоспособными на национальном и мировом уровнях. Учитывая вышеупомянутое, все заметнее становится роль инновационной инфраструктуры – не только как среды локализации инновационной деятельности, но и фундамента ее производства и катализатора развития. Именно это также делает важным обобщение и анализ мирового опыта становления и развития инфраструктуры инновационной деятельности. Потребность в исследовании процесса формирования инновационных инфраструктур других государств и регионов порождена необходимостью избегания рисков, связанных с возможным повторением уже сделанных другими участниками мирового процесса, но не принятых во внимание украинскими учеными, ошибок.

Развитие современного общества во многом определяется наличием и эффективностью инновационных процессов, происходящих в нем, которые обуславливают превращение результатов научно-исследовательских работ в новые продукты, технологии, услуги. Сегодня в мире одним из наиболее эффективных механизмов реализации такого преобразования являются различные инновационные структуры, научно-технические зоны с широким спектром их различных типов, являющихся объектами инфраструктуры инновационной деятельности – научных парков, технопарков, технополисов и других.

На сегодня такие инновационные структуры в Украине еще остаются проблемными и не выступают эффективным инструментом воздействия на развитие инновационных процессов и экономики в целом. За пределами рассмотрения остаются такие вопросы как особенности организационно-экономического механизма создания отечественных научных парков на региональном уровне и обеспечения их эффективного функционирования.

Актуальность этой проблематики усиливается в условиях попытки Украине занять ведущее место по инновационному развитию в мировом хозяйстве.

Проблему развития инновационной инфраструктуры и развития научных парков в Украине исследовали много украинских ученых, в частности Ю. Бажал, В. Базилевич, З. Варналий, А. Гальчинский, В. Геец, И. Егоров, О. Жилинская, И. Павленко, В. Сизоненко, В. Соловьев, Л. Федулова, Д. Черванев, А. Чухно.

Дискуссия

Воплощение идей научно-технической сферы в процессах экономического и социального развития общества означает формирование системы институтов, которые создают мощные стимулы для генерирования большого количества нововведений, способствующих созданию наукоемкой продукции, формированию новых рынков, которые способны обеспечивать платежеспособный спрос. Формирование национальной инновационной модели развития, прежде всего, предусматривает создание инновационной инфраструктуры, которая является институциональным полем, в котором

зарождаются, материализуются и через коммерческое использование приобретают признаки инновационного продукта научно-технические идеи.

Развитие инновационной инфраструктуры должно обеспечиваться, прежде всего, путем создания инновационных предприятий (инновационных центров, технопарков, инновационных бизнес-инкубаторов и т.п.) и образования кластеров – взаимосвязанных систем, необходимых для осуществления всего цикла инновационного процесса от генерации идеи до коммерциализации нововведения.

Инновационная инфраструктура должна включать такой комплекс взаимосвязанных систем:

- научно-образовательного и информационного обеспечения, что способствует разработке новаций и предоставляет доступ к инновационным предложениям и банка данных для всех заинтересованных предприятий и организаций, независимо от форм собственности;
- комплексной экспертизы инновационных и инвестиционных программ, проектов, предложений, заявок;
- финансово-экономического стимулирования и финансирования инновационной деятельности, используя различные источники поступления средств (ресурсы предпринимательских структур, средства инвестиционных фондов, иностранные инвестиции и т.д.);
- разработки и освоения высоких технологий, предоставление услуг в сфере инновационной деятельности и трансфера технологий;
- сертификации инновационной продукции, предоставления соответствующих услуг в сфере метрологии, стандартизации, контроля качества;
- продвижение инноваций на региональные, межрегиональные, иностранные рынки, включая маркетинговую деятельность, патентно-лицензионную работу, защита интеллектуальной собственности.

Развитие элементов и подсистем инновационной инфраструктуры в рамках национальной инновационной системы должно охватывать все звенья инновационного процесса: образование, научно-техническую деятельность, производство, потребление. В научной литературе и законодательно-нормативных документах можно выделить следующие подходы к определению инновационной инфраструктуры [7, с. 58]:

- объектно-функциональный, где под инновационной инфраструктурой понимают совокупность объектов инновационной деятельности, которые выполняют определенные функции по обслуживанию и содействие инновационным процессам, или совокупность предприятий, организаций, учреждений, объединений, ассоциаций любой формы собственности, оказывающих услуги по обеспечению инновационной деятельности (финансовые, консалтинговые, маркетинговые, информационно-коммуникативные, юридические, образовательные и т. п.);
- функциональный: рассматривает инновационную инфраструктуру как организационную, материальную, финансово-кредитную, информационную базу для создания условий, способствующих

эффективной аккумуляции и распределения средств и оказанию услуг для развития инновационной деятельности, технологического трансфера, коммерциализации научно-технической продукции в условиях повышенного риска;

- объектно-целевой, где цель функционирования инновационной инфраструктуры определены как «предоставление услуг и уменьшения стоимости взаимодействия субъектов научно-технической и инновационной деятельности путем обеспечения взаимосвязей инновационной системы специализированными организационными формами».

Законом Украины «Об инновационной деятельности» данная инфраструктура определяется как «совокупность предприятий, организаций, учреждений, их объединений, ассоциаций любой формы собственности, оказывающих услуги по обеспечению инновационной деятельности (финансовые, консалтинговые, маркетинговые, информационно-коммуникативные, кредитные, образовательные и т.п.)» [6]. Целью создания инфраструктуры является обеспечение как комплексной инновационной деятельности, так и сохранение и развитие научно-технического потенциала страны в интересах общества, включая преодоление спада производства, его структурную перестройку, изменения номенклатуры создания новой продукции, новых производственных процессов [7, с. 58]. Инновационную инфраструктуру создает совокупность объектов, которые путем предоставления разнообразных услуг позволяет снизить информационную асимметрию в инновационной сфере та ускорить получение квазирентных доходов субъектами инновационной деятельности [5, с. 307].

Итак, инновационная инфраструктура должна отвечать следующим характеристикам [3, с. 28]:

1. Распространенность во всех регионах, что позволит решать на местах задачи функционально полного инновационного цикла: от маркетинга и технико-экономического обоснования с внедрения в производство новаций с кадровым обеспечением и сервисным обслуживанием.
2. Универсальность обеспечит реализацию проектов под ключ в любых секторах экономики или производства.
3. Профессионализм, основанный на добросовестном и качественном обслуживании заказчика, объективному и заинтересованному отношению к «чужим» знаниям, научных технологий, оборудования и систем.
4. Конструктивность, которая обеспечит ориентацию на конечный результат.
5. Финансовая и информационная обеспеченность.
6. Гибкость, которая обеспечит адаптивность инновационной инфраструктуры к рыночным изменениям.

Опыт развитых стран показывает, что эффективными являются такие инновационные структуры, как бизнес-инкубаторы, научные и научно-технологические центры, которые специализируются на создании благоприятных условий для деятельности малых инновационных предприятий, реализующих оригинальные научно-технические идеи [1]. В

совокупности они также выполняют производственную функцию, т.е. создают и реализуют инновационный продукт. Но их главное назначение – содействие малым инновационным предприятиям путем предоставления им во временное пользование производственных площадей, материально-технической базы, информационных сетей, обеспечения исследовательскими приборами и оборудованием и консультативной помощи в области научно-технологических, экономических и правовых вопросов [3, с. 6].

Рассмотренное выше образование составляет организационно-хозяйственную инфраструктуру инновационной деятельности. Но существуют предприятия, организации, учреждения, обеспечивающие инновационную деятельность, выполняя на заказ инновационных предприятий отдельные специфические работы опытно-экспериментального и проектно-конструкторского характера. Они могут существовать как отдельно в виде институтов, лабораторий, проектно-конструкторских фирм и бюро, экспериментальных участков, исследовательских полигонов и т.п., предоставляя инновационным предприятиям услуги соответствующего профиля, так и входя в состав таких организационно-хозяйственных комплексов, как технопарк, технополис, бизнес-инкубатор. Но независимо от формы существования (отдельно или в составе) по функциональному признаку их следует отнести к инфраструктуре, которая по назначению вместе с организационно-хозяйственной инфраструктурой обеспечивает материально-технические условия инновационной деятельности [4, с. 420].

Следующий, очень важный сектор инновационной инфраструктуры – предоставление услуг ресурсного обеспечения. Иногда в ресурсной составляющей инновационной деятельности видят лишь финансовое обеспечение. Финансирование инновационной деятельности осуществляется как непосредственно предприятиями промышленности за счет собственных средств, так и через государственные и местные бюджеты. Другие источники финансовых ресурсов – внебюджетные фонды, отечественные и иностранные инвесторы, банковские кредиты и т. п.

Организационными формами финансового обеспечения инновационной деятельности в соответствии с мировой и отечественной практикой могут быть специализированные небанковские финансово-кредитные учреждения, а также фонды, фирмы, банки венчурного инвестирования. Важную ресурсную услугу предоставляет инфраструктура по информационному обеспечению. Использование этого ресурса осуществляется через глобальные информационные сети (Интернет, научно-технические фонды, библиотеки, информационные базы данных, депозитарные системы).

Движущей силой инновационной деятельности выступает человеческий капитал. Ведь он требует не только интеллектуальных ресурсов для генерации новых идей, но и удачных руководителей, которые могут эффективно организовать инновационный процесс на всех его стадиях. Таким образом, неотъемлемым условием инновационной деятельности является кадровая инфраструктура. В ее состав включают учреждения высшего и среднего образования с соответствующего профиля знаний, центры, школы и училища со специальной профессиональной подготовкой, центры и учебные заведения по подготовке и переподготовке специалистов непосредственно в сфере

инновационной деятельности. Кадровая инфраструктура вместе с финансово-экономической, информационной и юридической создает необходимые ресурсные условия обеспечения инновационной деятельности.

Существует еще достаточно широкое поле инфраструктурных услуг, которые создают институциональную основу инновационной деятельности. Это инфраструктура общесистемного обеспечения инновационной деятельности. Сюда, прежде всего, следует отнести нормативно-правовые институты в виде законов и нормативных актов, которые определяют правовые, экономические и организационные основы осуществления инновационной деятельности в Украине, то есть формируют общий климат функционирования инновационной модели развития экономики. Непосредственно правовую поддержку субъектам инновационной деятельности могут оказывать как собственные юридические службы, так и специализированные юридические и консалтинговые фирмы, опираясь на существующую законодательную базу [2, с. 238].

Таким образом, инновационная инфраструктура, обеспечивающая высокое развитие национальной экономики, действительно ускоряет коммерциализацию нововведений, поэтому она должна иметь весь комплекс вышеперечисленных элементов, функционирующих во взаимодействии.

Кроме национального уровня инфраструктурного обеспечения инновационной деятельности, также выделяют региональный уровень. Сегодня в регионах Украины существуют отдельные элементы инновационных систем, которые требуют более определенного структурного оформления. Система управления региональным инновационным развитием может быть представлена структурами, которые принимают основные решения по региональному развитию. В их состав входят: организации по территориальному планированию развития, которые объединяют административно-территориальные единицы региона и обеспечивают общественно-правовой характер и нормативную структуру региональной политики, сеть агентств регионального развития, которые интегрируют инициативу бизнеса, территориальных и профессиональных обществ; инфраструктура рынка технологий, состоящая из совокупности экономических субъектов и механизмов, которые организационно и материально обеспечивают взаимодействие потребителей и разработчиков технологической продукции (технопарки, бизнес-инкубаторы, научно-исследовательские институты и лаборатории при университетах, промышленные предприятия и т.п.).

Региональная инновационная система может включать: совещательный орган при органах местной власти и самоуправления; региональный инновационный центр (как корпорацию заинтересованных инновационных структур, высших учебных заведений, научно-исследовательских институтов и бизнес-структур, которые отвечают за организацию работ создания и развития региональной инновационной системы); экспертно-консалтинговое и аналитическое обеспечение, организацию выставок, ярмарок и презентаций инновационных проектов, информатизации и PR-работ; региональный инновационный фонд как финансовый инструмент поддержки приоритетных инновационных проектов; инновационно-выставочный центр как место для

проведения бизнес инновационных форумов, конференций, презентаций; инфраструктурную инновационную сеть как конгломерат существующих элементов инфраструктуры (бизнес-центры, инкубаторы, патентные доверенные, инновационные центры вузов), которые объединены рамочным соглашением о кооперации и субконтрактных соглашениях; региональный семинар по инноватике как постоянно действующий рабочий семинар по проблемам регионального развития, где проходит апробация всех проектов региональных инновационных центров [8, с. 136].

Заключение

Итак, инновационная инфраструктура является важной составляющей развития инновационной деятельности и инновационного предпринимательства, в частности. Ее формирование и функционирование активизирует инновационные процессы в стране. Выделяют несколько видов объектов инновационной инфраструктуры в зависимости от ее назначения. Каждый из данных видов по-своему важный для создания необходимых условий для воплощения инновационных проектов в жизнь. Именно поэтому развитие инновационной инфраструктуры должно стать одним из приоритетов инновационной политики государства.

Государство должно разделить с бизнесом риски внедрения инноваций и усовершенствовать законодательство по стимулированию инновационной деятельности, режимов работы технопарков, исследовательских лабораторий, автономии украинских высших учебных заведений и т. п.

Для того чтобы обеспечить рациональное использование научно-технологического потенциала Украины и способствовать функционированию инфраструктурного обеспечения развития инновационного предпринимательства, по нашему мнению, в первую очередь необходимо принять следующие меры:

1. Создать Государственный венчурный фонд, который должен осуществлять прямое предоставление капитала венчурным фондам и инновационным предприятиям (в виде прямых инвестиций или кредитов под низкие проценты).
2. Разработать Концепцию развития национальной венчурной индустрии, по которой основными субъектами осуществления государственной политики в сфере венчурного капитала должны быть Государственная комиссия регулирования рынка финансовых услуг, Государственная комиссия регулирования рынка ценных бумаг и фондового рынка.
3. Просмотреть и ввести схемы налогового стимулирования инновационной деятельности, в том числе:
 - предоставление льгот в налогообложении тем венчурным фондам, которые осуществляют финансирование проектов, отвечающих приоритетным направлениям и стратегии инновационного развития государства;
 - разработка программ и механизмов относительно возможностей применения налоговых каникул для малых и средних венчурных фирм;

- создание благоприятной государственной политики для венчурного финансирования, в частности в сфере таможенного законодательства.
- 4. Ввести финансовые стимулы привлечения инвестиций в фонды, в малые и средние инновационные предприятия путем снижения государством венчурных рисков частных инвесторов (например, во Франции – SOFARIS), содействия диверсификации капиталов частных венчурных фондов путем участия государственного венчурного фонда в специально отобранных проектах, а также разработки и внедрения механизма государственного страхования кредитов, предоставляемых рыночными финансово-кредитными учреждениями под реализацию инновационных проектов [7].
- 5. Усовершенствовать национальное законодательство по венчурному финансированию и разработать закон для инновационного предпринимательства.
- 6. Урегулировать систему защиты интеллектуальной собственности путем государственной поддержки международных патентов из наиболее перспективных разработок и посредством внедрения эффективной защиты научной интеллектуальной собственности от нарушений.
- 7. Создать необходимые условия для развития неформального венчурного финансирования крайне важного на этапах стартапов, что требует изменений гражданского законодательства по закреплению прав собственности бизнес-ангелов в венчурных проектах.
- 8. Внедрить развитие венчурной и инновационной инфраструктуры, важными элементами которой являются: технопарки, бизнес-инкубаторы, центры трансфера технологий, венчурные фонды, проведение инновационных конкурсов, экспертных советов, венчурных ярмарок национального и регионального уровней. Обязательной является государственная поддержка создания виртуальных инновационных бизнес-инкубаторов и баз данных по ведению инновационной предпринимательской деятельности на базе Интернет.
- 9. С целью увеличения доли и объемов привлечения венчурных инвестиций в отечественные инновационные компании необходимо создание системы коучинг-центров по венчурному предпринимательству. Для этого необходимо увеличить госзаказ на подготовку и переквалификацию кадров для инновационной деятельности государственными учебными заведениями и наладить и отработать механизмы стажировки студентов по инновационному менеджменту в ведущих университетах зарубежных стран.
- 10. Проводить в Украине Венчурные Форумы, что даст возможность для компаний малой и средней капитализации, заинтересованных в привлечении инвестиций для развития своего бизнеса, привлечь внимание широкого круга инвесторов, завязать контакты и наладить деловые связи с возможными партнерами по бизнесу.
- 11. Актуальным механизмом оживления венчурной индустрии является внедрение вторичного рынка сертификатов венчурных фондов.

Для того чтобы в Украине начало активно развиваться инновационное предпринимательство, необходимо, прежде всего, осуществить качественный анализ имеющихся законодательно-правовых актов, создающих условия для его развития и функционирования на государственном уровне, и принимая во внимание опыт развитых стран в сфере становления, поддержки и обеспечения развития инновационного предпринимательства, ввести собственную модель эффективного взаимодействия элементов инфраструктурного обеспечения развития инновационного предпринимательства.

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НАТАЛЬЯ МИХАЙЛОВНА ФОМЕНКО / NATALIA FOMENKO

ОСНОВНЫЕ НАПРАВЛЕНИЯ И ОСОБЕННОСТИ СЕТЕВЫХ МЕХАНИЗМОВ УПРАВЛЕНИЯ ОРГАНИЗАЦИЕЙ

GUIDELINES AND PECULIARITIES OF NETWORK MECHANISMS OF AN ORGANIZATION RUNNING

Аннотация / Abstract

Конкурентоспособность организации во многом зависит от ее возможностей своевременно реагировать на изменение во внешней среде. Расширение границ бизнеса (глобализация), образование альянсов, сетей из компаний, все это приводит к тому, что информационные сети позволяют создавать “лучшую во всех отношениях” организацию. Сетевые механизмы управления организацией являются основными в области происходящих изменений в управленческой деятельности конкурентоспособных компаний.

Competitive advantage of an organization mainly depends on its possibility to respond duly to the changes of the environment. Business expansion (globalization), alliance formation, networks of companies result in the fact that information networks allow to create “the best organization” in all aspects. Network mechanisms of organization running are basic in the coming changes in the management activity of companies with competitive advantage.

В XXI веке становится очевидным, что конкурентоспособность организации во многом зависит от ее возможностей своевременно реагировать на изменение во внешней среде. Современная организация должна работать четко и отлаженно, а значит – должна быть управляемой. Возможность управления организацией зависит от того насколько хорошо в ней поставлены сбор, обработка и анализ информации для принятия решений. В результате верно организованной управленческой деятельности предприятия с учетом информационных технологий возможно решение этих задач.

Становится очевидным, что достижения в развитии глобальных информационных и коммуникационных технологий привели к формированию новой глобальной электронной среды, так называемой сетевой экономики, что в свою очередь привело к появлению новых форм функционирования и развития систем управления организациями. В результате достигается и более высокая эффективность производства.

Расширение границ бизнеса (глобализация), образование альянсов, сетей из компаний, все это в свою очередь приводит к тому, что информационные сети позволяют создавать “лучшую во всех отношениях” организацию. Нововведения в области управления приводят к более высокой производительности, повышению уровня доверия участников друг к другу, повышению ответственности при выполнении договорных обязательств и прочее. Партнерство здесь менее формально. Тут организации объединяются

для того, чтобы использовать скрытые рыночные возможности, которые для отдельно взятых компаний не существуют.

В докладе, подготовленном Европейской Комиссией, глобальная сетевая экономика (англ. *networked economy*) определяется как "среда, в которой любая компания или индивид, находящиеся в любой точке экономической системы, могут контактировать легко и с минимальными затратами с любой другой компанией или индивидом по поводу совместной работы, для торговли, для обмена идеями и ноу-хау или просто для удовольствия".

Производственным ресурсом информационного общества становятся не столько информация, как объективная сущность о социально-экономических, производственных и технологических процессах, сколько знания. А генерирование и использование знаний, в свою очередь, являются решающим фактором в управлении развитием организации и источником повышения производительности, что в свою очередь позволяет повысить производительность.

Сетевой принцип управления организацией стал одним из основных в области происходящих изменений в управлении конкурентоспособными компаниями. Его суть состоит в том что многоуровневые иерархии заменяются группами фирм или специализированными организациями, которые координируют рыночные, а не административные механизмы. Данный принцип управления все более и более востребован в современных условиях и считается как более рациональный по сравнению с вертикальной интеграцией развития фирмы.

Автором статьи проведено исследование в результате которого выявлено, что базовым фактором развития сетевой экономики является развитие глобальной сети *Internet*. Так все больше преобразований претерпевает структура экономических организаций. Компании имеют возможность не только функционировать на рынке как виртуальные экономические единицы, но еще и изменению подвергается структура и формы организации труда и взаимодействия на уровне служащих компании. В частности, огромное применение обретает система "Инtranет".

Инtranет (англ. *Intranet*) – в отличие от сети *Internet*, это внутренняя частная сеть компании. Обычно, Инtranет – это *Internet* в меньшем масштабе, который организован на применении протокола IP для обмена и общего использования определенной части информации между структурными подразделениями организации.

Особенности сетевой формы управления бизнесом состоят в том, что в случае неготовности организации участвовать в полном объеме в корпоративной среде имеется возможность создания виртуальных объединений, существующих только на метарынках *Internet*. В таком случае, организация может быть участником одного материального и нескольких виртуальных корпоративных объединений, создавая свое собственное информационно экономическое пространство.

Электронный сетевой рынок весьма неоднороден, кроме того, существует много способов ведения бизнеса в сети. В основе существования и развития любого электронного проекта лежит некая бизнес – модель управления предприятием. Выбор той или иной модели определяется целями и задачами,

стоящими перед проектом. На сегодняшний момент времени различают следующие модели взаимодействия участников сетевого рынка: **B2B** (*business-to-business*, бизнес - бизнес); **B2C** (*business-to-customer*, бизнес - клиент); **B2G** (*business-to-government*, бизнес - государство); **C2G** (*consumer-to-government*, потребитель - государство); **G2G** (*government-to-government*, государство - государство); **C2C** (*consumer-to-consumer*, потребитель - потребитель); **C2B** (*customer-to-business*, потребитель - предприятие); **E2E** (*exchange-to-exchange*, биржа - биржа) [1].

К числу электронных систем, обеспечивающих взаимодействие основных субъектов сетевого рынка, относят различные сайты, порталы, электронные магазины, электронные торговые площадки и торговые системы (как объединение торговых площадок), электронные системы обеспечения финансовых расчетов, системы *Internet* – маркетинга, трейдинга, страхования, консалтинга и прочее. Так же можно выделить некоторые наиболее значимые бизнес – модели управления предприятиями на электронном сетевом рынке (*Web*-сайт, Электронная витрина, Электронный каталог, Рыночный концентратор, Синдикатор, Портал, Информационный брокер, Операционный брокер, Электронный аукцион, Обратный аукцион, Интерактивная биржа, Электронный магазин, Консалтинг, Виртуальное сообщество и прочие). Они в той или иной степени способствуют получению дополнительной ценности, предлагают покупателю новый продукт, предоставляют дополнительную информацию или услугу наряду с традиционным продуктом или услугой, но по ценам гораздо более низким чем при традиционном подходе [1, 2].

Вершиной покорения сетевой формы управления бизнесом является виртуальное предприятие (ВП).

Виртуальные организации являются одной из инновационных организационных систем управления. На формирование ВП воздействовали: расширение границ рынков, повышение требований потребителей к качеству продукции, цены и уровню удовлетворения потребностей заказчиков, увеличение значимости стабильных взаимоотношений с покупателями (индивидуальными заказчиками), а еще растущее использование новейших информационных и коммуникационных технологий.

Анализ работ, посвященных исследованию вопросов создания виртуальных организаций показал, что наибольшее влияние на появление новых организационных форм оказывает появление новых механизмов рыночной конкуренции и развитие информационных технологий (ИТ). ИТ предоставляют качественно новые возможности для кооперации автономных рыночных агентов на основе их основных компетенций (функциональных возможностей). Управление деятельностью ВП, с одной стороны, заключается в том, чтобы эффективно организовать объединение производственных структур (которые теоретически могут находиться на разных континентах) и тем самым обеспечить выполнение заказа индивидуального потребителя наиболее полным и адекватным его представлениям образом. С другой – такое предприятие может создаваться для изготовления продукта высокого качества с использованием наиболее современных технологий, существующих на момент возникновения идеи продукта или услуги.

Предпосылками виртуализации предприятий как новой формы функционирования и развития систем управления стали: развитие сети *Internet*, с помощью которой ВП могут получать необходимую информацию, распространять ее и управлять своей деятельностью; виртуальный рынок – рынок продуктов и услуг, организованный на базе коммуникационных и информационных полномочий сети *Internet*; виртуальная реальность, то есть отображение и имитирование настоящих исследований разработок и производства в кибернетическом пространстве, которое считается и прибором, и средой; виртуальные (сетевые) организационные формы.

Проведенный автором анализ функционирования виртуальных организаций продемонстрировал, что ключевыми признаками виртуальной формы организации считаются: открытая распределенная структура; гибкость; приоритет горизонтальных связей; автономность и узкая специализация членов сети; высокий статус информационных и кадровых средств интеграции.

Анализ концепций и организационно-функциональных структур виртуальных предприятий позволяет сформулировать общую организационную схему управления ВП [2]. В ее составе центр управления (орган координации), различные предприятия – участники и коммуникационная среда. Орган координации формулирует правила деятельности ВП и механизмы их реализации. Концепция аутсорсинга позволяет избежать существенных затрат на управление, создание и поддержание предприятиями собственной сложной инфраструктуры ВП.

На основании этого сформулирована следующая последовательность создания ВП: проектирование процессов, привязка процессов к ресурсам, привлечение ресурсов по контрактам и другое. Однако при построении кооперационной стратегии управления бизнесом предприятия неизбежно сталкиваются не только с новыми возможностями, но и с новыми потенциальными опасностями. К основным преимуществам кооперации в ВП относятся возможность быстрого освоения новых рынков, сокращение затрат, ноу-хау, дополнительные инвестиционные возможности, возможности разделения рисков среди партнеров в ВП. К основным недостаткам – увеличение зависимости от партнеров по бизнесу, риск утраты ноу-хау и конкурентных позиций.

Следует отметить что, управление бизнес-процессами виртуального предприятия базируется на модифицированной нормативной 8-процессной модели деятельности производственного предприятия (разработана компанией «БКГ» и лично ведущим российским специалистом в области организационного развития компаний Т. Р. Кадыевым), которая дополнена автором. Добавлены процессы и процедуры, обеспечивающие информационное взаимодействие экономических субъектов и поддержку информационной платформы управления ВП.

В общем случае модель включает в себя: бизнес-процессы, описывающие деятельность предприятия; организационную структуру предприятия, построенную по процессному (кросс-функциональному) принципу; перечень документов (информационных объектов), используемых в управлении бизнес-процессами; процессы и процедуры, обеспечивающие поддержку

информационной платформы управления ВП. Модель управления бизнес-процессами позволяет снизить трудоемкость создания виртуального предприятия.

Организация управления ВП осуществляется на основе бизнес – процессов, пронизывающих не только структуру одного предприятия, а и всей их совокупности, входящих в ВП. Эффективность реализации бизнес – процессов в управлении ВП проверена и оценена результатами их имитационного моделирования на базе применения процессно-статистического подхода.

В результате проведенного исследования можно с уверенностью говорить о том, что ключевое достоинство виртуальных форм организаций: право выбора и использования лучших ресурсов, знаний и способностей с наименьшими временными затратами.

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НАТАЛИЯ НИКОЛАЕВНА МУРАВЬЕВА / NATALIYA MURAVYEVA

**ВЛИЯНИЕ ИНФОРМАЦИОННЫХ ТЕХНОЛОГИЙ НА МЕДИЦИНСКУЮ
ДЕЯТЕЛЬНОСТЬ И ОСНОВНЫЕ ЧЕРТЫ МЕДИЦИНСКИХ УСЛУГ (НА
ПРИМЕРЕ ПОРТАЛА ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫХ УСЛУГ)**

**THE INFLUENCE OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGIES ON MEDICAL
ACTIVITY AND THE BASIC LINES OF MEDICAL SERVICES (ON THE
EXAMPLE OF THE PORTAL OF THE STATE SERVICES)**

Аннотация / Abstract

В современной рыночной экономике государство через реализацию функций здравоохранения предоставляет населению так называемые общественные блага. Существенно повысить эффективность процесса предоставления медицинских услуг позволяют современные информационные технологии, которые в свою очередь влияют на основные черты медицинских услуг.

In modern market economy the state through realization of functions of health care provides the so-called public benefits to the population. It is essential to increase the efficiency of the process of providing medical services through modern information technologies which in turn influence the main lines of medical services provision.

Деятельность медицинских работников направлена на изменение состояния объекта, которым является человек, результатом данной деятельности является полезный эффект восстановления, поддержания и укрепления здоровья – медицинская услуга. В процессе оказания медицинской услуги формируется продукт медицинской деятельности. Задача медицинской деятельности – не создавать какое-либо благо, которое может быть присвоено, а изменить неблагоприятное состояние человека до такого состояния, которое можно считать благом.

Академик Ю. П. Лисицын в своих работах отмечает, что «главная экономическая и медицинская категория – медицинская услуга, как известно, не духовное понятие, а материализованное, проявляющееся в конкретной деятельности медика и парамедицинского персонала по осуществлению конкретных мер профилактики, диагностики, лечения, реабилитации, административно-хозяйственных, управленческих и других действий, направленных на сохранение, укрепление, улучшение, воспроизводство индивидуального и общественного здоровья» [1].

Для того, чтобы избежать негативных социально-экономических последствий кризисных явлений в здравоохранении, следует найти способ принятия решения о затратах, требующихся для создания общественных благ. Необходимо определить какой субъект экономики будет решать следующие вопросы: сколько медицинских услуг требуется обществу в конкретный момент времени и на какие затраты в связи с этим готово общество. В

современной рыночной экономике решение таких вопросов возлагается на государство, именно оно через реализацию функций здравоохранения предоставляет населению так называемые общественные блага.

Следует отметить, что сфера оказания государственных услуг в настоящее время не имеет законодательно закреплённой терминологической базы. Несмотря на это, реформирование указанной сферы продолжается. Большинство органов исполнительной власти Российской Федерации приняты административные регламенты, регулирующие порядок деятельности по оказанию конкретных видов государственных услуг.

При разработке хозяйственного механизма здравоохранения необходимо учитывать, прежде всего, экономическую сущность медицинских услуг. Специфика благ, удовлетворяющих потребности в здоровье, заключается в её двойственности, т.е. потребности в здоровье не могут быть удовлетворены только использованием общественных благ или в результате потребления частных благ [2]. Эта двойственность накладывает отпечаток на развитие системы здравоохранения в целом. Таким образом, необходимость государственного контроля здравоохранения определяется самой экономической природой медицинских услуг.

Рассмотрим пример, когда государство обеспечивает организацию и финансирование медицинских услуг, обеспечивающих эффективную борьбу с опасными инфекционными заболеваниями. Население России желает жить в обществе, в котором отсутствует подобные болезни, поэтому на всех уровнях государственной власти ведется постоянная профилактическая работа по предупреждению опасных инфекционных заболеваний, а так же меры по борьбе с ними. Необходимые в данном случае медицинские услуги не являются частными благами, которые могут предоставляться посредством рыночного механизма. Рынок не сможет выполнить эту функцию. Наиболее эффективно эту функцию выполняет государство. В итоге выгоду получают все слои населения. Малообеспеченные люди могут бесплатно получать необходимые общественные медицинские услуги (напр. профилактика и лечение инфекционных заболеваний). Несомненную выгоду в данном случае получают и те люди, которые посредством уплаты налогов в бюджет оплачивают предоставление такого рода услуг. Они живут в обществе с меньшим уровнем заболеваемости.

Повышение качества и доступности, предоставляемых гражданам и организациям, государственных услуг, упрощение процедуры и сокращение сроков их оказания, снижение административных издержек со стороны граждан и организаций, связанных с их получением, внедрение единых стандартов обслуживания граждан возможно с расширением возможностей «электронного правительства», а именно предоставление государственных услуг в электронном виде.

Охарактеризуем систему получения электронных государственных медицинских услуг, которая представляет собой распределённую структуру, позволяющую получателям услуг осуществить доступ к данным услугам через Интернет. Точкой входа для получения услуг являются порталы государственных или муниципальных органов. Взаимодействие между порталами государственных услуг разного уровня может быть налажено,

благодаря возможности перехода пользователей с порталов региональных порталов на вышестоящие и нижестоящие порталы, а также на ведомственные порталы и обратно по гиперссылкам. Интерфейс портала позволяет получателю медицинских услуг:

- заполнить формы, бланки документов, в которых ему необходимо предоставить релевантную информацию для оказания данного вида услуг, после чего осуществляется процесс оказания услуги;

- получить всю информацию о состоянии услуги (этапе прохождения ее через систему получения электронных государственных услуг).

Состояние информатизации в различных государственных и муниципальных органах характеризуется так называемой «лоскутной автоматизацией», когда автоматизируются отдельные процессы на отдельных участках, при этом межсистемной интеграции нет не только между различными органами, но и внутри них [3].

Например, в Министерстве здравоохранения РФ услуги населению предоставляются службами, фондом и агентством при помощи разных информационных систем, которые никак друг с другом не связаны. Необходимо отметить, что за время эксплуатации в них накоплено большое количество данных.

Рассмотрим медицинские услуги, предоставляемые на портале государственных услуг.

1) Министерство здравоохранения РФ:

- выдача разрешений на ввоз на территорию РФ лекарственных препаратов, предназначенных для оказания гуманитарной помощи (содействия) или помощи при чрезвычайных ситуациях;
- выдача заключений о месте происхождения минеральной питьевой лечебной, лечебно-столовой и минеральной природной столовой воды;
- организация направления граждан РФ на лечение за пределами РФ;
- рассмотрение обращений граждан РФ;
- прием заявлений (запись) на прием к врачу и др.

2) Федеральное медико-биологическое агентство:

- получение информации о федеральных социальных выплатах;
- прием и учет уведомлений о начале осуществления отдельных видов работ и услуг;
- регистрация лиц пострадавших от воздействия факторов физической, химической и биологической природы;
- осуществление государственного санитарно-эпидемиологического надзора в отраслях промышленности с особо опасными условиями труда и на отдельных территориях и др.

3) Федеральная служба по надзору в сфере защиты прав потребителей и благополучия человека:

- выдача санитарно-эпидемиологических заключений;
- проверка деятельности юридических лиц, индивидуальных предпринимателей и граждан по выполнению требований санитарного законодательства, законов и норм и др.

4) Федеральная служба по надзору в сфере здравоохранения и социального развития:

- лицензирование фармацевтической и медицинской деятельности;
- выдача сертификата специалиста лицам получившим образование в иностранных государствах;
- контроль за порядком проведения медицинской экспертизы и др.

5) Федеральный фонд обязательного медицинского страхования: рассмотрение обращений граждан РФ.

В дискуссиях о портале государственных услуг обсуждаются вопросы транспорта данных и формата их использования, при этом не достаточное внимание уделяется автоматизации управленческих процессов. Отказ от существующих систем и построение «с нуля» некой единой общегосударственной информационной системы, которая будет выполнять все процессы, связанные с предоставлением государственных медицинских услуг, можно считать негативным сценарием. Позитивный сценарий – это построение системы предоставления государственных услуг на основе интеграции существующих систем.

Наибольший интерес с точки зрения их автоматизации представляют услуги, которые при их реализации требуют взаимодействия двух или более ведомств.

Очевидно, что информационные технологии влияют на основные черты медицинских услуг в процессе их предоставления.

Рассмотрим, как меняются характерные черты медицинских услуг под влиянием информационных технологий.

1) Индивидуальный характер – при возможности массово предоставлять услуг не стоит забывать, что в конечном итоге услуга оказывается конкретному пациенту. Это приводит к высокой степени индивидуализации процесса производства медицинской услуги. Данная особенность предъявляет высокие профессиональные требования к работникам здравоохранения.

2) Неразрывность процессов предоставления и потребления – подавляющее большинство медицинских услуг не только нельзя отделить от их производителя, но и подвергнуть возврату, что также обусловлено их неосязаемостью и неразрывностью процессов предоставления и потребления. Услуга не существует до её предоставления, что делает невозможным сравнение и оценку услуги до её получения. Сравнивать можно только ожидаемые выгоды и полученные. Учитывая это свойство, необходимо добиваться соответствия мощностей по их производству реальному спросу на них. Вместе с тем процесс оказания медицинских услуг должен иметь и определенные резервы в виде информационных, материальных и кадровых ресурсов.

3) Сложность структуры медицинской услуги – услуги здравоохранения достаточно часто имеют сложную структуру, то есть являются результатом деятельности нескольких категорий медицинских работников. В целом медицинская услуга охватывает всю жизнь человека, и в её оказании потенциально могут участвовать многие медицинские работники. На эту особенность влияет непрерывно возрастающая информационно- и технoемкость современной медицины.

4) Неоднородность качества – медицинской услуге присуща неоднородность качества. Оказание медицинской услуги это творческий

процесс, связанный с множеством факторов риска, неопределенностью конечного эффекта и поэтому изначально не может быть однородным. Качество медицинской услуги на портале государственных услуг формируется в результате согласования желаний пациентов получить пользу от ее предоставления с последующим реально ощутимым восприятием от ее потребления.

5) Недостаточная объективность оценки результативности медицинской услуги – для медицинских услуг характерна недостаточная объективность оценки её результативности. Это напрямую связано с такими признаками медицинской услуги, как неосвязаемость и неоднородность качества. Учитывая выраженность информационной асимметрии, присутствует фактор неопределенности, вследствие чего потребители не имеют возможности адекватно оценивать полезность услуг ни до, ни после их применения, вследствие чего часто вынуждены полностью полагаться на профессиональную репутацию, уровень квалификации и опыт работы медицинского персонала. На портале государственных услуг возможности контроля пациентов за действиями врачей будут снижены только из-за объективной сложности профессиональных знаний в этой области, а не закрытии нужной для потребителя услуг информации с целью невозможности контроля и суждений о качестве медицинских услуг.

Однако, проблемы, возникающие в процессе предоставления медицинских услуг с использованием возможностей Интернет, имеют не техническую, а организационно-правовую природу.

Особую проблему представляет передача информации между ведомствами различного уровня подчинения: федеральными, региональными и муниципальными (в ведомственных инструкциях обычно указано, что сведения могут быть переданы только органам следствия, судам и т.п.).

Отдельным аспектом передачи информации является необходимость выполнять требования закона о персональных данных [4] (большая часть информации, передаваемой в целях исполнения государственных услуг, будет относиться к персональным данным).

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НАТАЛЬЯ СЕРГЕЕВНА КЛУНКО / NATALIA KLUNKO

ЭКОНОМИЧЕСКАЯ ЦЕЛЕСООБРАЗНОСТЬ ИНТЕГРАЦИОННОГО СОТРУДНИЧЕСТВА ФАРМАЦЕВТИЧЕСКОГО КОМПЛЕКСА РОССИИ И СТРАН СНГ

ECONOMIC EXPEDIENCY OF THE INTEGRATION COOPERATION BETWEEN PHARMACEUTICAL COMPLEX OF RUSSIA AND THE CIS

Аннотация / Abstract

Представлен анализ деятельности фармацевтических рынков стран СНГ. Рассмотрена экономическая целесообразность интеграционного сотрудничества фармкомплексов стран СНГ. Данная проблематика рассмотрена на конкретном примере интеграционного сотрудничества двух стран: Россия и Украина.

The analysis of the pharmaceutical markets of CIS is presented. The economic feasibility of integration cooperation of CIS pharmaceutical complexes is examined. The problem is addressed through a specific example of the integration cooperation between two countries: Russia and Ukraine.

Фармацевтика, одна из базовых отраслей, играет важную роль в социальной и экономической сфере любого государства. Устойчивое развитие и надежное функционирование отрасли во многом определяют уровень жизни населения страны и являются важными факторами ее успешного экономического развития. Поэтому фармацевтический комплекс определен как один из приоритетных секторов экономики всех стран СНГ.

Ситуация на постсоветском пространстве во многом уникальна. В отличие от других регионов, стремящихся к созданию единых фармацевтических рынков, единая система – построенная, впрочем, на административных отношениях, уже существовала в СССР. В период коренной перестройки социально-политических и экономических отношений 80-х – 90-х годов организационно-технологическое единство фармацевтического комплекса было утраченным [1, 2, 3].

Именно поэтому, после распада СССР каждая страна постсоветского пространства прошла собственный путь в развитии фармотрасли. Невзирая на то, что каждый из фармацевтических стран СНГ имеет историю своего развития и особенности, им присущи общие тенденции развития:

- Высокий потенциал развития и темп роста потребления лекарственных средств на душу населения;
- Близкий по показателю развитию уровень медицины;
- Рост рынка в условиях увеличения заболеваемости и старения населения;
- Тенденция к перераспределению рынка по ценовым сегментам: рост потребления носит преимущественно качественный характер (переход на более дорогие препараты);

- Общие принципы медицинского и фармацевтического образования;
- Общие принципы продвижения лекарственных препаратов иностранными фармацевтическими фирмами (головные офисы в Москве, Киеве, Алматы);
- Общие принципы лекарственного обеспечения;
- Основные программы, по которым работает лекарственное обеспечение (туберкулез, сахарный диабет, онкозаболевания и др.);
- Общие источники информации (РМБС, Фармэксперт, локальные маркетинговые агентства);
- Наличие основных ассоциаций, представляющих: иностранных фармацевтических производителей; отечественных производителей-участников фармацевтического комплекса; импортеров фармацевтической продукции (дистрибьюторов); розничные аптечные сети.

Фармацевтическим рынкам стран СНГ присущи и схожие проблемы:

- Формирование стандартов лечения и списка основных жизненно-важных ЛС;
- Отсутствие единых требований при регистрации, перерегистрации, ввозе и обращении лекарственных средств: маркировка упаковки, формирование инструкций, сертификация;
- Процесс регистрации и перерегистрации лекарственных средств [4, 5, 6].

На уровень развития фармацевтических рынков стран СНГ влияет ряд факторов: численность населения, уровень экономического развития страны, степень участия государственного финансирования в системе лекарственного обеспечения, промоционная активность фармацевтических компаний и др.

Уровень среднедушевого потребления лекарственных средств в значительной степени зависит от менталитета и уровня благосостояния населения, о чем наглядно свидетельствует прямая корреляция уровня ВВП и расходов на ЛС на душу населения в большинстве стран СНГ.

Нужно обратить внимание на то, что Украина при сравнительно низком уровне ВВП на душу населения входит в тройку лидеров среди стран СНГ по показателю среднедушевого потребления ЛС.

Если принять рынок стран-участников СНГ за 100%, то доля России составила 70%, Украины – 13%, Казахстана – 5%, Беларуси – 4%, Узбекистана – 4%, на долю оставшихся стран пришлось примерно 5%.

В настоящее время среди стран СНГ лишь два фармацевтических рынка исчисляются миллиардами в долларах и упаковках. Так, по итогам 2011 г. объем розничных продаж ЛС в России составил 15,0 млрд. дол. США за 4,4 млрд. упаковок, а в Украине этот показатель составил 3,0 млрд. и 1,2 млрд. соответственно.

Для этих стран в 2011г. также отмечены максимальные темпы прироста фармацевтических в денежном выражении по сравнению с предыдущим годом – плюс 24,7% в России и плюс 16% в Украине.

При этом нужно отметить, что оба этих рынка тесно взаимодействуют.

Для того, чтобы укрепить свои позиции в глобальной бреде, фармпроизводители этих стран могут выбрать как стратегию партнерства,

которая предоставляет более широкие перспективы для развития портфеля и большее финансирование для развития Sales Force, так и стратегию самостоятельного развития, т. е. собственное развитие портфеля (брендируемые дженерики) и активное развитие Sales Force. В целом эти две стратегии хороши и правильны по-своему.

Однако мы считаем, что украинским и российским фармпроизводителям нужно сделать основной акцент на совместной работе. Например в секторе производства вакцин. Ведь анализ структуры фармрынков стран СНГ показывает, что доля локальных производителей самая высокая в Украине – 24%, а самая низкая в Казахстане – 16%. Это связано с тем, что Украина вышла из СССР с хорошо развитой фармацевтической промышленностью.

В свое время Украина была основным производителем сывороток и вакцин в пределах СССР, после распада которого эта отрасль производства в Украине, в сущности, исчезла. Согласно нормативам Всемирной Организации Здоровья, страна, которая имеет больше 30 млн. населения, должна наладить собственное производство вакцин [7]. В Украине же преимущественно используются импортные сыворотки и вакцины, тогда как отечественное производство сывороток и фракций крови является незначительным. Однако Россия имеет хорошие позиции в этом секторе. Именно поэтому на этих рынках глобализационные и интеграционные процессы относительно укрупнения фармакологических компаний будут происходить и в дальнейшем. Считаем, что в скором времени мы будем свидетелями прихода и становления на этих рынках новых активных игроков.

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**ТАТЬЯНА ВЛАДИМИРОВНА СИДОРИНА, МАРИНА ВЛАДИМИРОВНА
АРТАМОНОВА, ОЛЬГА ИОСИФОВНА ЛИХТАНСКАЯ, ЕКАТЕРИНА
ГРИГОРЬЕВНА ЕФРЕМОВА / TATYANA SIDORINA, MARINA
ARTAMONOVA, OLGA LIKHTANSKAYA, EKATERINA EFREMOVA**

ИССЛЕДОВАНИЕ ПЕРСПЕКТИВ РАЗВИТИЯ РОССИЙСКОГО ТУРИЗМА

RESEARCH OF PROSPECTS OF THE RUSSIAN TOURISM

Аннотация / Abstract

Туризм является атрибутом жизни цивилизованного общества. В Концепции долгосрочного социально-экономического развития Российской Федерации представлены направления развития инфраструктуры отдыха и туризма. Оценка общей конкурентоспособности стран и туристской конкурентоспособности существенно различаются, поэтому для оценки конкурентоспособности туристской индустрии разрабатываются специальные рейтинги. Туризм, по сравнению с другими отраслями, переживает экономический кризис менее болезненно. Большинство россиян из года в год отдыхают именно в России, а не за границей.

Tourism is an attribute of the life of a civilized society. In the Concept of long-term socio-economic development of the Russian Federation directions of development of infrastructure of recreation and tourism are presented. Assessment of the overall competitiveness of countries and tourism competitiveness differ significantly, therefore, to assess the competitiveness of the tourism industry specific ratings are worked out. Tourism, in comparison with other branches, is experiencing economic crisis less painfully. The majority of Russians from year to year rest in Russia, not abroad.

Одним из критериев уровня развития страны является степень социальной ориентированности ее экономических перспектив. Современное развитие мирового туристского рынка и его глобализация свидетельствуют о том, что туризм является неотъемлемым атрибутом жизни любого цивилизованного общества.

Вопросы конкурентоспособности туризма становятся актуальными, поскольку тесно связаны с повышением уровня жизни населения. В России стали уделять больше внимания развитию этой отрасли. Туристская индустрия реализует конституционное право человека на отдых, поэтому защита прав туристов является приоритетной для государства задачей в силу ее огромного социального значения.

В условиях глобализации туристского рынка особое значение приобретает исследование закономерностей развития туризма. Проблемам экономики и управления туризмом посвящены работы В. И. Азара, И. Т. Балабанова, В. Г. Гуляева, В. А. Квартальнова, Н. С. Морозовой, Н. К. Сердюковой, А. Д. Чудновского и др. В них представлены особенности и специфика конкуренции

в сфере туристской индустрии на различных уровнях. Для нашего исследования также значимой информационной базой являются материалы Всемирного совета по туризму и путешествиям (WTTC).

ВСПТ – Всемирный совет по путешествиям и туризму (World Travel & Tourism Council – WTTC) представляет прогноз развития туристской отрасли всех стран. Совет был создан в 1990 году. Его членами являются более 100 руководителей ведущих компаний мира: средств размещения, общественного питания, круизов, транспортных компаний, рекреационных центров и других, имеющих отношение к организации путешествий. ВСПТ стремится к тому, чтобы туристская отрасль воспринималась во всем мире как одна из основных отраслей экономики, поэтому основной функцией Совета является привлечение внимания правительств к туристской отрасли – как крупнейшему поставщику финансовых ресурсов и рабочих мест в мире.

Оценка общей конкурентоспособности стран и туристской конкурентоспособности существенно различаются, поэтому для оценки конкурентоспособности туристской индустрии разрабатываются специальные рейтинги.

В ежегодном докладе Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report, публикуемом в рамках Всемирного экономического форума World Economic Forum (WEF), рассматривается индекс конкурентоспособности туристской индустрии различных стран, учитывающий факторы, влияющие на привлекательность туристской индустрии для развития и инвестиций. Все факторы подразделяются на три блока:

1. Законодательное регулирование.
2. Бизнес-климат и инфраструктура.
3. Человеческие, культурные и природные ресурсы.

При составлении рейтинга и индекса конкурентоспособности секторов путешествий и туризма (ТТСИ) используются статистические данные и исследования всемирных организаций, в том числе, Международной ассоциации воздушного транспорта (IATA), Международного союза по сохранению природы (IUCN), Всемирной туристской организации (UNWTO), Всемирного совета по путешествиям и туризму (WTTC), а также результаты опросов топ-менеджеров. Так, в результате исследования получены следующие данные: в 2008 году в рейтинге участвовали 124 страны (Россия заняла 64 место), в 2009 – 133 страны (Россия заняла 59 место), в 2011 – 139 стран (Россия осталась на 59 месте в мире, в Европе – на 33 месте) [3].

Несмотря на занимаемой российским туризмом место в результате такой экспертизы, туристские ресурсы и возможности России оцениваются очень высоко. Как и в предыдущие годы, в 2011 году эксперты подчеркивают сильные стороны России в сфере туризма, называют богатые рекреационные ресурсы. Отмечено, что в последние два года повышается уровень развития инфраструктуры, в частности, улучшена инфраструктура воздушного транспорта. Выявлены негативные факторы:

- неразвитость инфраструктуры наземного транспорта;
- низкая ценовая конкурентоспособность;
- низкое качество обслуживания;
- несоответствие цен качеству услуг;
- проблемы с доступностью человеческих ресурсов;

- слабая эффективность туристской политики;
- неблагоприятная среда регулирования сектора путешествий и туризма.

Президент ВСПТ Жан-Клод Баумгартен (Jean-Claude Baumgarten) особо отметил, что Россия обладает достаточным потенциалом, чтобы в течение ближайших десяти лет стать одной из ведущих стран мира в сфере туризма и путешествий. Практически по всем показателям туристская отрасль в России до 2016 года будет развиваться динамичнее, чем в Европейском Союзе.

Кроме того, в исследовании выявлено неравномерное развитие туризма в стране – лишь 20% территории страны используется для туризма, причем в Москве сосредоточено более 50% гостиничных номеров, которыми располагает Россия.

Таким образом, согласно выводам, проведенного ВСПТ исследования, туристская отрасль имеет значительные возможности влияния на будущее экономическое и социальное развитие России. Спрогнозировано, что в ближайшие десять лет ежегодный рост доли туристской отрасли в ВВП составит 5,1%.

Среди рекомендаций Совета по оптимизации потенциальных возможностей отрасли туризма в России особенно выделены такие:

- проведение широкой разъяснительной кампании по развитию имиджа туризма, чтобы население поняло необходимость развития туризма и создаваемые им преимущества, затрагивающие все слои общества;
- условием успешного развития туризма в России является долгосрочное планирование на федеральном уровне, поэтому необходимо разработать новую национальную политику развития туризма;
- проводить маркетинговые мероприятия, обратив особое внимание на продвижение брэнда «Россия»;
- обеспечить максимально возможное равенство в распределении выгод от сферы туризма между всеми регионами и слоями населения;
- продвижение идеи ответственности за сохранение природной, социальной и культурной среды [6].

Стратегия развития туризма в России указывает на то, что современное состояние нормативного правового регулирования в сфере туризма характеризуется развитием и реализацией правовых норм, направленных на повышение гарантий и эффективности защиты прав и законных интересов потребителей туристского продукта [7]. Хорошим продолжением для развития внутреннего туризма является Федеральная целевая программа (ФЦП) развития внутреннего и въездного туризма на 2012-2018 годы с весьма солидной финансовой поддержкой госбюджета и надеждой на куда более существенные денежные вливания со стороны частных инвесторов. Согласно этой Федеральной программе в течение ближайших 8 лет на развитие туризма в России будет выделено около 100 млрд. рублей. Деньги будут потрачены на самые привлекательные инвестиционные проекты, которые будут реализовываться на территориях с наибольшим туристско-рекреационным потенциалом. Средства рассчитаны на развитие инфраструктуры: строительство дорог, аэропортов, отелей и кемпингов. Это позволит увеличить количество иностранных туристов, приезжающих в Россию, к 2018 году их должно вырасти более чем в шесть раз – до 23 миллионов человек, а отпуск в

России будут проводить 45 миллионов человек. Предположительно вырастет и объем рынка туристических услуг – в 4,7 раза, то есть до 417 млрд. рублей [5].

До сентября 2012 года контроль за реализацией ФЦП находился в руках чиновников Минспорттуризма, а сейчас – у Ростуризма. Ростуризм отобрал первые 19 регионов для участия в мероприятиях по продвижению туризма в рамках отраслевой Федеральной целевой программы (ФЦП) и начиная с декабря 2011 года повел масштабную рекламную кампанию путешествий по России, рассчитанную на российского потребителя. Это – Краснодарский край, Алтай, Башкортостан, Астраханская, Костромская, Ивановская, Псковская, Липецкая, Ярославская и Рязанская области, а также Бурятия, Татарстан и другие регионы.

В 2011 году пилотные проекты были запущены в Ярославской, Ивановской, Рязанской, Ростовской, Псковской областях и в Алтайском крае. В 2012 году финансирование в рамках программы начали получать Бурятия, Липецкая область и Тува – из бюджета до конца года будут выделены в общей сложности 2,22 миллиарда рублей. Планируется, что до конца 2018 года в развитие туристической инфраструктуры будет вложено 332 миллиарда рублей, в том числе 96 миллиардов из федерального бюджета. По первым восьми проектам, отобранных для участия в ФЦП, сейчас готовится проектно-сметная документация, будут проведены федеральные конкурсы на реализацию мероприятий по строительству, подведению инфраструктуры. Государственный заказчик – Минспорттуризма.

В результате контроля Счетная палата России на коллегии ведомства 25.12.2012 признала крайне низкой эффективность бюджетных расходов в рамках федеральной целевой программы «Развитие внутреннего и въездного туризма в Российской Федерации». Из выделенных на 2011 год бюджетных средств было освоено только 11,9%, а за девять месяцев 2012 года – 53% от предназначенного объема субсидий [4].

Практически во всех странах туризм, по сравнению с другими отраслями, переживает экономический кризис менее болезненно. Именно туризм в период кризиса может вобрать в себя высвобождающиеся трудовые ресурсы, так как в этой отрасли очень большой процент малого бизнеса. Зарубежный опыт показывает, что в мировой туристской системе занято более 130 млн. человек (по данным Международной организации труда – МОТ), а создание здесь одного рабочего места обходится примерно в 20 раз дешевле, чем в промышленном секторе экономики. По сравнению с выездным, внутреннего туризма не касаются риски, которые несут туроператоры, работающие на выездном рынке. Компании, предлагающие туры по России, не ведут между собой демпинговых войн, не пытаются захватить доли рынка, а значит, и банкротства в этом сегменте маловероятны. Турфирмы начинают по-другому подходить к формированию туристского продукта. Главное – сегодня турбизнес, наконец, начинает заниматься подготовкой непосредственно туристского продукта. Если раньше, как правило, туркомпании предлагали из года в год один и тот же однажды созданный турпродукт, то теперь все меняется, разрабатываются множество новых программ и маршрутов, ориентированных на различные возрастные, профессиональные, комплексные виды туризма эконом- и бизнес-класса.

Автономная некоммерческая организация «Аналитический Центр Юрия Левады» (АНО Левада-Центр) – российская негосударственная исследовательская организация регулярно проводит социологические и маркетинговые исследования является одной из крупнейших российских организаций в своей области, провела интересное исследование. Опрос был проведен 16-19 марта 2012 года по репрезентативной всероссийской выборке городского и сельского населения среди 1633 человек в возрасте 18 лет и старше в 130 населенных пунктах 45 регионов. Распределение ответов приводится в процентах от общего числа опрошенных вместе с данными предыдущих опросов. Статистическая погрешность данных этих исследований не превышает 3,4% [2].

Исследование продемонстрировало: расхожее мнение о том, что большинство наших соотечественников предпочитают отдых за рубежом, – это миф. Результат оказался очень неожиданным: около 70% россиян никогда не бывали за границей ни в деловых поездках, ни на отдыхе. Опрос показал, что в зарубежные поездки хотя бы раз в год отправляется не более 7% населения, у 83% граждан России вообще нет загранпаспорта. На вопрос «Как часто вы бываете за границей на отдыхе?» только 6% ответили, что выезжают отдыхать раз в два-три года. Отдыхают в других странах примерно раз в год лишь 4% россиян. Число тех, кто ездит за границу чаще, не превышает статистической погрешности. Прекратили отдыхать за границей, хотя раньше отправлялись в подобные поездки, 10% россиян. Всего 2% респондентов заявили, что выезжают за границу по делам в среднем раз в год. Тех, кто выезжает за рубеж в командировки чаще двух-трех раз в год, оказалось меньше 2%.

Большинство россиян из года в год отдыхают именно в России, а не за границей. На отдых за рубеж выезжает лишь 5% населения. Всего, по данным официальной статистики, в России отдыхает порядка 30-32 млн. человек – речь идет тех гражданах, которые во время отпуска останавливаются в гостиницах, пансионатах, домах отдыха, санаториях и т.д. Это примерно 22% населения.

Результаты продаж за 2012 год свидетельствуют о росте спроса на туры по России практически на всех направлениях. Самый высокий прирост показали экскурсионные туры в Санкт-Петербург (плюс 82%), путевки в Кавминводы (рост на 51%), Белоруссию (48%), Абхазию (32%), в Москву (20%) и Краснодарский край (15%). В то же время, из-за масштабного строительства несколько сократилось число запросов на отдых в Сочи (на 15%) и Туапсе (на 6%). Выручка туроператоров на внутреннем рынке в 2011 году выросла на 20% по сравнению с 2008 годом, чистая прибыль – на 5%. Эти цифры позволяют говорить о том, что внутренний рынок на сегодня остается одним из самых перспективных.

Серьезной проблемой последних десяти лет стала отчетливо проявляться тенденция по формированию сдерживающих факторов развития туризма, среди которых можно выделить:

1. Подорожание продуктов питания в мировом масштабе из-за тенденции продовольственного кризиса.

2. Удорожание туристических маршрутов из-за роста стоимости транспортной составляющей вследствие повышения цен на углеводороды и электроэнергию.
3. Инфляционные ожидания населения, опосредованные развернувшимся финансовым кризисом [1, с. 3-4].

Наряду с финансовыми вложениями, залогом успеха развития российской туристской отрасли является качественная подготовка высококвалифицированных кадров, конкурентоспособных на рынке труда, компетентных, ответственных, свободно владеющих своей профессией и ориентированных в смежных областях деятельности, способных к эффективной работе в рыночных условиях на уровне мировых стандартов, готовых к постоянному профессиональному росту, социальной и профессиональной мобильности, имеющих потребность в получении непрерывного образования и навыки адаптации в постоянно изменяющейся внешней среде.

Сегодня реализуют подготовку менеджеров туризма из 421 вуза в России 162, из них в федеральных округах РФ: Центральном – 52, в Северо-Западном – 21, в Приволжском – 19, в Южном – 27, Уральском – 18, в Сибирском – 14, в Дальневосточном – 11. Причем, наиболее востребованной является специальность «Социально-культурный сервис и туризм».

Однако, у выпускников высших и средних учебных заведений по специальности «туризм» есть проблемы с трудоустройством, потому что они сегодня мало востребованы бизнесом. Причем, на рынке востребована часть молодежи, выпущенная под конкретные специальности. Те формы образования, которые применяет НГУЭУ, позволяют интегрировать студентов в среду туристической индустрии. Практико-ориентированное образование, участие в работе Ассоциации новосибирских туристских организаций и общественном совете при губернаторе Новосибирской области и тесная связь с представителями регионального турбизнеса студентов специальностей «Социально-культурный сервис и туризм», «Туризм» приносит свои результаты: 89 % выпускников 2011 и 2012 года начали свою карьеры именно в туристической индустрии.

Наше исследование по совершенствованию качества подготовки выпускников вуза показывает, что нужна долгосрочная работа по формированию сервисной ментальности для работы в гостиничном бизнесе. Практика обнаруживает, что люди, отработавшие в ресторане или гостинице, становятся востребованными даже в банковской сфере. Это огромная профессиональная закалка, психологическая, завязанная на ежедневных взаимоотношениях с людьми. Гость может задать вопросы, касающиеся знания страны, своего города. Сотрудник, умеющий общаться с клиентами по широкому диапазону проблем, более конкурентоспособен, усиливает имидж своего предприятия. Кадры для туризма нужно начинать готовить еще в школе, где должна быть настроена система отбора ребят, обладающих сервисной ментальностью. Поэтому кафедра туризма, гостеприимства и курортного дела НГУЭУ заключает со школами города и области договоры социального партнерства, проводит предпрофессиональную подготовку с целью привлечения способных ребят в сферу сервиса.

Таким образом, можно сделать несколько выводов:

1. Туристская отрасль в любой стране и в России, в том числе, по сравнению с другими отраслями, переживает экономический кризис менее болезненно. Создание одного рабочего места в туризме обходится в 20 раз дешевле, чем в промышленном секторе экономики.
2. В Концепции долгосрочного социально-экономического развития Российской Федерации на период до 2020 года одним из главных направлений является повышение уровня жизни российских граждан, в том числе за счет развития инфраструктуры отдыха и туризма, а также обеспечения качества, доступности и конкурентоспособности туристских услуг.
3. Развитие внутреннего и международного туризма в России характеризуется появлением большого количества предпринимательских структур, работающих в этой сфере, проникновением на российский рынок зарубежных туристских и гостиничных сетей, выходом российских туристских фирм на международный рынок, высокой степенью проявления интеграционных процессов на рынке туристских услуг.
4. В условиях кризиса необходимо активнее развивать внутренние и региональные факторы, особое значение приобретает развитие внутреннего туризма. Это направление является приоритетным для государственного регулирования, что отражено в Законе «Об основах туристской деятельности в Российской Федерации».
5. Въездной туризм в России, основанный на экономических, культурных, природных, человеческих ресурсах, неисчерпаем на долгие годы.

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ЮЛИЯ ЕВГЕНЬЕВНА МУЗАЛЕВСКАЯ / JULIA MUZALEVSKAYA

ВЛИЯНИЕ ГЛОБАЛИЗАЦИОННЫХ ПРОЦЕССОВ НА ИЗМЕНЕНИЯ СОВРЕМЕННОГО КОСТЮМА

THE INFLUENCE OF GLOBALIZATION ON CONTEMPORARY COSTUME CHANGES

Аннотация / Abstract

Статья посвящена процессам, происходящим в области вестиментарной моды под влиянием всемирной глобализации. Глобализация оказала не только отрицательное, но и положительное влияние на интеграцию опыта мирового дизайна при создании образа современного человека. Общаясь, культуры взаимно дополняют и обогащают друг друга. В мировой моде появляется стимул к дальнейшему развитию.

The article focuses on the processes taking place in the field of fashion (vestmentum) influenced by the globalized world. Globalization has not only a negative but also a positive impact on the integration of the experience of the world of design when creating the image of the modern man. Communicating cultures complement and enrich each other. Fashion world is stimulated for further development.

Термин «глобализация» первоначально возник для определения современных политико-экономических процессов в мире. В настоящее время не только в научном мире, но и в обществе в целом пришло осознание существования целостной системы «глобалистика», охватывающей экономику, политику и культуру. В каждой из этих составляющих наблюдаются различные аспекты проявления глобализационных процессов. Современный мир стремится к обретению единства, взаимосвязанности. Невиданные ранее мощь, темп ускорения развития в этом направлении носят планетарный характер, отсюда и определение «глобализация».

Подверглась трансформации в этом процессе и предметная культура, составной частью которой является костюм. «Костюм вместе с его носителем предстает единым целым. Он появился как неотъемлемая часть человека, а поскольку человек – сложнейшая система, то и костюм с необходимостью становится многогранной системой. ...Включаясь в духовную культуру, костюм выражает общие идеи, характерные для данного времени, того или иного народа... одним словом – жизненную парадигму данной эпохи» [4, с. 67]. До начала глобализационных процессов костюм исследовался на огромном историческом материале, содержащем описания костюмов отдельных эпох и наций. Информационный аспект глобализации, выражающийся в стремительном развитии средств передачи информации, стал основным фактором развития прогресса. Возникла ситуация исчезновения прежних барьеров между государствами. Обмен духовными ценностями планетарного масштаба привел к изменениям образа мира. Костюм

большинства развитых стран подвергся невиданной в прежние века трансформации.

Процессы глобализации не линейны, во многом противоречивы – одновременно интеграционны и дезинтеграционны. Существующие в прежней, традиционной культуре границы, казавшиеся, да и на самом деле служащие препятствием к проникновению внешних воздействий, имели и положительную сторону – способствовали сохранению национальной идентичности, что особенно ярко выражалось художественными средствами костюма. Исчезли границы, произошла интеграция, на первый взгляд налицо проявление прогресса. Появилась возможность заимствования, освоения всего нового, прогрессивного из достижений других народов. Но существует и некоторая обеспокоенность по поводу возможности обезличивания национального костюма. Более того, с расширяющимся процессом глобализации в обществе возникают настроения безнадежности, опасений: не является ли это стремлением к мировому господству, не приведет ли к гибели культуры? Однако все многообразие национальных, региональных культур основывается на их глубинном родовом единстве. Ускорение интеграционных процессов не должно привести к нивелированию культурных особенностей. Напротив, движение к большей целостности мира обогащает культуру, ведь «одна культура может сказать то, чего не может сказать другая, и если мы не услышим чей-то голос, то звучание мировой культуры не будет полным» [2, с. 334].

Глобализация в вестиментарной моде часто понимается как синоним американизации. На самом деле развитие процесса значительно сложнее и имеет не только негативные последствия. Экспорт американской продукции в этой области культуры создает фон, на котором выявляются особенности костюма других регионов. Зачастую, в нем открываются новые значения, символические смыслы, по-новому воспринимается своеобразие традиционной эстетики. Диалог культурных традиций в области моды тем успешнее, чем большей степенью художественности обладает тот или иной национальный костюм. Способность той или иной культуры как сохранять и развивать свои культурные традиции, так и впитывать многочисленные, многовековые влияния иных культур духовно обогащает предметный мир в целом и костюм в частности. В той связи можно обратить внимание «на противоречивое наследие колониальной эпохи: будучи столицей французских владений в Западной Африке, этот город (Дакар – прим. автора) испытал сильное «принуждение к цивилизации» по французскому образцу. С другой стороны, «слава» африканского Парижа» позволила Дакару выработать своеобразную и влиятельную модную традицию, соединяющую европейские, арабские и африканские элементы» [3, с. 323]. Примером весьма удачного расширения взаимовлияния в современной моде является творчество японских дизайнеров. Гениально соединив в костюме японские традиции с европейскими, основываясь на общих законах создания костюма и трансформировав формы европейского, при этом, не растратив многовековых достижений, японцы создали поистине костюм будущего.

Влияние на развитие костюма в масштабах мира оказывается не только и не столько успешным творчеством дизайнеров разных стран. В ряду основных

факторов влияния стоит и обращение к тем или иным философским воззрениям, распространяющееся ускоренными темпами и охватывающим весь мир. Так, в конце 1980-х начале 1990-х годов западный мир открывает для себя восточную философию, в частности дзен-буддизм. Происходит колоссальная переоценка ценностей, потребительские настроения общества ее прогрессивной частью отвергаются. Призыв к «самоочищению», к возвращению истинных ценностей приводит к главенству такого направления в дизайне как минимализм. Этот стиль более демократичен, в нем есть чувство меры и гармонии. Создатели одежды вдохновлялись идеей природной гармоничности человеческого тела, которую нужно подчеркивать, а не декорировать. Дизайнеры, наиболее талантливо выразившие концепцию минимализма в своих коллекциях – европейцы Хельмут Ланг и Жиль Сандер. Они сочетали лаконизм на грани аскетизма с оригинальностью, изысканностью кроя, использованием новых высокотехнологичных материалов. Но одновременно и американские дизайнеры, такие как Кельвин Кляйн, Донна Кэран воплощают в своей одежде идеи минимализма. К тому же Д. Кэран исповедует учение дзен. В это время начинают ощущаться первые плоды глобализации и, кажется, что мода уже никогда не обратится в прошлое, а будет устремляться вперед, к прекрасному будущему. Наиболее полно отвечает буддистскому учению, конечно же, современный японский дизайн, проникнутый основной составляющей этой философии – понятием «среда обитания». В нем провозглашается единство человека и природы. Как следствие такого принципа конструкция традиционной японской одежды основывается на удобстве, отсюда просторный покрой, не учитывающий индивидуальные особенности фигуры. Так и в современном японском костюме между телом и одеждой существует свободное пространство, отсутствие жесткой конструкции позволяет ее трансформировать. Японский дизайн выражает общие принципы философии ненасилия над природой, в том числе и человека. Можно утверждать, что именно язык дизайна, выработанный в Японии, проложил мост между модой Запада и Азии, тогда как ранее мир ориентировался только на западные образцы. Японский минимализм с футуристическим настроением привлекает создателей моды и в настоящее время. В нем парадоксальным образом сочетается сила и беззащитность, верность традициям и устремление в будущее. Такая новая философия одежды как деконструктивизм также пришла из Японии. И это еще один пример мирового взаимовлияния. Термин возник из философии постмодернизма, употреблен впервые М. Хайдеггером, обоснован теоретически Ж. Деррида. Понятие деконструкция этими философами трактуется как способ нового восприятия жизни, образ мышления в эпоху постмодернизма, для которой характерно децентрация и деканонизация. То есть, понятие центр – высокая культура – перестает существовать, равно как и традиционные ценностные центры. Эти структуры подвергаются деконструкции, т.е. разрушению. Философия деконструктивизма подразумевает изменение моделей сознания общества, культуры и самосознания человека. В дизайне этот метод проявляется в отказе от традиций и даже от старых представлений о хорошем вкусе. Исчезает ансамбль, на первое место выходит комплект и, таким образом, система

костюма становится открытой, появляется возможность трансформации. Впервые новое направление представили Ёджи Ямамото и Рей Кавакубо. Обратившись к европейской одежде, они придали ей незавершенный характер, асимметричность и самое главное деформировали привычные формы костюма, доводя их до абсурда. Поклонниками творчества деконструктивистов стали интеллектуалы и представители творческой среды. Создание в костюме ощущения единого целого путем объединения противоположностей, пришедшее из Японии, стремительно распространилось по всему миру. Это лишь некоторые примеры перевода национальных языков одежды на всеобщий, глобальный язык. Значительная часть общества выдвигает ещё один аргумент в пользу глобализации в дизайне одежды, заключающийся в том, что весь мир пользуется машинами, компьютерами и другими объектами предметного мира, лишенными фольклорных влияний и этот факт не вызывает протеста. Однако это касается предметного мира, с костюмом, основным компонентом образа человека, все гораздо сложнее. Современный мир находится в постоянном изменении. Если в прежние, более статичные времена человек воспринимал идентичность как некую независящую от него данность, то в эпоху постмодернизма он представляет самореализацию как создание самого себя. Осознание себя индивидами пришло к человеку каких-то два столетия назад, а в настоящее время появилось понимание уникальности каждого индивида. Плюрализм в моде предоставляет огромное количество вариаций для выражения индивидуальности средствами костюма. Но здесь необходимо соблюдать определенный баланс, некоторый перекося в сторону индивидуальности способен вывести ее обладателя из поля моды. В традиционной культуре процветало постоянство, идентичность понималась как соответствие традициям, их разрушение повлекло за собой дифференциацию образов жизни, личность имеет возможность выбирать из них, создавать самого себя, самоидентифицироваться. Это требует большой работы в создании, изобретении самого себя.

Противоречивость современной эпохи, провозгласившей индивидуальную свободу основой будущего развития общества, выразилась в парадоксальном существовании в обществе своеобразных «родовых» образований [5, с. 66]. «Конец двадцатого века и второго тысячелетия, вторая половина девяностых годов ознаменованы страбическим напряжением двойного движения: глобализации и трибализации... глобализация несет в себе угрозу идентичности, исключает попытки придать существованию личностный характер. В ответ на это и возникает трибализация» (термин трибализация образован А. Олива от слова – племя – прим. автора) [1, с. 191]. Современное технократическое общество в силу своей духовной разрозненности, замкнутости, отстранения от переживаний человека, не дает отдельному индивидууму чувства принадлежности к единой общности. Это становится одной из причин появления молодежных субкультур, в сущности являющихся теми же племенными объединениями, выбираемыми частью общества.

Таким образом, в XX веке в общественном сознании наметился следующий парадокс: с одной стороны все увеличивающаяся его склонность к массовости, а с другой – формирование и развитие этико-этнического

сознания малых групп. Возникший внутри субкультурных групп костюм как основное средство идентификации внутри объединения, послужил началу формирования тенденции выражения индивидуальности при помощи внешнего облика. Специфическая субкультура, порожденная молодежным бунтом 1960-1970-х годов, основывалась на утопическом стремлении вернуть человека западной цивилизации к его «естественному состоянию». Но, как правильно заметил Ларс Свендсен в «Философии моды»: «Можно предположить, одежда представителей субкультур имеет больше «значения», чем одежда массовой моды, и во многом это соответствует действительности. Однако субкультуры также находятся в процессе изменения... Субкультуры заменяются «постсубкультурами», если их представители недостаточно заботятся о создании идеологических и стилистических отличий от других групп» [6, с. 107]. Это лишь один пример, характеризующий глобализацию в культуре как процесс сложный, нелинейный. С одной стороны он является объединяющим, но в тоже время больше не существует единой доминирующей культуры. Время плюрализма, распространения массовой культуры размывает границы между основной культурой и субкультурами, число которых все увеличивается. Глобализация привела к возникновению такого термина как «мировой стандарт», унифицирующий как стили, так и образ жизни. Однако опасения относительно унификации в моде не оправдались. Все расширяющееся распространение моды привело к невиданному разнообразию, общество прогнозировало униформизацию, а получило множество вариаций стилей.

Еще один закон развития культуры в новом глобализационном мире – ускорение. До его возникновения стили зарождались и формировались веками. Они получали название «великие» за совершенность, безупречность. Эпоха великих стилей закончилась, новые направления возникают и распространяются по миру за каких-нибудь два десятилетия, не успев развиваться, уступают место следующим. Это соответствует стремительности современной жизни. Однако, анализируя особенности этих стилей, можно заметить, что они впитали, а зачастую, и развили достижения прежних этапов развития костюма. Все ускоряющийся темп обновления приводит к тому, что и цикл моды от умирания до возвращения существенно сократился. Теперь он составляет 15-20 лет. И здесь мы наглядно видим, что культура, в частности костюм, не отказывается категорично от прежних достижений, а возвращается к прежнему опыту, черпает в нем вдохновение, но создает образы уже в соответствии с новым витком развития. Как показало время, в большинстве стран осознание необходимости сохранения собственной самобытной культуры, не поглощения ее мировой культурной общностью, привело к формированию национальной идентичности в костюме, выраженной современными художественными средствами. Более того, этническое своеобразие предметного мира обогатилось обращением к другим культурам. В целом глобализация способствовала быстрейшему прохождению пути развития модного костюма, представляющего собой способ демонстрации реального социального статуса или иллюзорности более высокого до демократичного костюма. Причем теперь предлагается огромное разнообразие образов, гармоничных с предметной средой своего времени. Эстетические

идеалы времени по-прежнему выражены костюмом, хотя и другими средствами новой эпохи, на основе машинного производства.

Глобализация оказывает не только отрицательное, но и положительное влияние на интеграцию опыта мирового дизайна при создании образа современного человека. Общаясь, культуры взаимно дополняют и обогащают друг друга. В мировой моде появляется стимул к дальнейшему развитию, открываются новые горизонты и творческие источники, рождаются необычные идеи.

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Part 7

International Scientific and Educational Cooperation for the Solution of Contemporary Global Issues: from Global Competition to World Integration

Международное сотрудничество в области науки и образования для решения глобальных проблем современности: от глобальной конкуренции к всемирной интеграции

DARIA TUYAKAEVA

AN OVERVIEW ON GENDER PROBLEM IN MODERN ENGLISH

Abstract

The object of the present linguistic study is the linguistic phenomenon of gender as a grammatical category of the English noun. We witness an upsurge of interest to the problem nowadays in the context of the prescription of gender-fair English. Gender-fair (neutral) English language has gained support from major text-book publishers and academic groups. Our assumption is gender in Modern English is a relatively straitforward category to discuss as has already been indicated, modern scholars writing in Modern English are highly influenced by traditional accounts on gender.

Introduction

Gender in English nouns maybe described as “notional” or “overt” in contrast to the “grammatical” or “overt” gender of nouns as in French, German, and Russian. We tried to make a survey with a critical eye on the grammarians assumptions who deeply studied the problem such as Quirk’s system English has nine gender classes which is open to discussion. A more contemporary approach to gender in English can be found in Biber’s, Huddleston and Pullum’s, Brinton’s works. A dew attention to the gender problem in English is given in the studies of great Russian linguists such as: Smirnitsky A. I., Iliysh A. B., Veyhman G. A. and others. Some of the most interesting changes that have taken place in the English language over the last 30 years have been driven by two desires to unzip the disputed issue of gender as the

grammatical category of the English noun in present day English and to avoid, if not to banish, sexism in the language.

One aspect of English is certainly easier than in some languages is gender. In German, for example, nouns can be masculine, feminine and neuter, and the learner has to know which in order to choose the right article, pronoun and adjective ending (the same with the Russian language) for example, and for no apparent reason, a spoon is a *he*, a fork is a *she*, and knife is an *it* (*der Loeffel, die Esabel, and das Messer*). In English it is easy: males are a *He*, females are a *She* and ships and everything else are *It*. However, this does not mean there is never any problem in choosing the correct pronoun though it might seem that “gender” in Modern English is relatively straight forward category to discuss in comparison with the phenomenon in many other languages.

In many text-books for both native and non-native speakers of English it is barely mentioned, if at all [11, p. 20-28]. Katie Wales expresses the idea, everyone, be they amateurs or linguists, native or non-native speakers, would agree with, without a second thought-gender is an, at most, marginal category of Modern English.

For centuries, it has been largely equaled and confused with the biological category of sex, making it difficult to speak of “gender” in English at all. However, a look at Modern reference grammars reveals that obviously tradition is stronger than common sense-gender has always been a category (formal or functional) of English, and no one dares (yet) to let go of it completely. Now let’s have a look at grammarians’ views on gender in Modern English.

Quirk gives the following definition to gender: “By gender is meant a grammatical classification of nouns, pronouns, or other words in the noun phrase, according to certain meaning-related distinctions, especially a distinction related to the sex of the referent” [8, p. 303; p. 148-60].

Equating the existence of gender with the existence of gender-specific pronouns poses a problem. We enter a circle of argument and counter-argument if we claim that English has gender because it has pronouns that show gender distinctions - the traditional argumentation would go the opposite way and claim that the distinctions in the pronominal systems only exist because the nominal referent carries the feature “gender”, which in turn has to be mirrored in the pronominal system(s).

The patterns of pronoun coreference for singular nouns give us a self of nine gender classes as illustrated by Quirk:

a) animate-personal (male - brother, boy; female - sister, girl; dual - doctor; teacher); generic (common - baby; collective - family); impersonal (higher male animal - bull; higher female animal - cow; lower animal - ant);

b) inanimate - box, table.

According to Quirk English has nine gender classes which reveal a high degree of overlap with each other. None of the sub-categories is sufficient for assigning gender to a noun. The author applied some sort of hierarchy to arrive at the above classification in which humanity>sex>animation>pronoun choice are accepted as the basis of the system. Male/female gender distinctions in animal nouns are maintained by people with a special concern (e.g. with pets). No reference is made to the fact that animals are generally ‘he’ in spoken language. Our concern is with

“professional” language use that includes terminological differentiation, e.g. dog-bitch.

Another exceptional noun class mentioned is that of country names, which can be used with neuter gender (geographical unit) or feminine (political/economic units) pronouns... On the well-known use of feminine pronouns referring to ships, perhaps towards which we have an intense and close personal relationship. For example: That’s a lovely ship (Titanic). What is she called? In nonstandard and Australian English, there is extension of ‘she’ references to include those of antipathy as well as affection e.g. She’s an absolute bastard, this truck.

A more contemporary approach to gender in English can be found in Longman’s Grammar of Spoken and Written English (Biber, 1999) [1, p. 20-22] incorporating, as the title suggests, considerable amounts of material from spoken language for the first time and thus complementing rather than substituting Quirk (1985). Biber states that “Gender is a less important category in English than in many other languages”. It is closely tied to the sex of the referent and chiefly reflected in co-occurrence patterns with respect to singular personal pronouns.

Biber and his colleagues are well aware of the fact that gender is a problematic category in Modern English. Thus their insightful caveat about oversimplifying matters: “However, gender is not a simple reflection of reality: rather it is to some extent a matter of convention and speakers choice and special strategies may be used to avoid gender specific reference at all”. Biber largely discusses pragmatic motivations for pronoun choice, such as the use of specifically gender-marked forms on the one hand or avoidance on the other (e.g. chairman/woman is chairperson). The grammarians state that personal reference expresses greater familiarity or involvement. Non-personal reference is more detached. Expressions for young children (infant, baby, child) and animals (pets in particular) offer a three-way choice. An exceptional status is once attributed to nouns denoting countries and ships, which offer a two-way choice (personal ‘she’ and non-personal ‘it’). Although grammarians “account comes much closer to the actual facts we observe in the realization of Gender in English today, they fail to offer explanations for the exceptional cases, most of which they do not even mention e.g. why is it possible at all to use ‘she’ when referring to a ship”.

Let us introduce the most recent effort in the field, Huddleston and Pullum’s Cambridge Grammar of the English language [7, p. 71-77; 90-120] by way of quoting the following “It is important to distinguish carefully between the semantic and extralinguistic terms ‘Male’ and ‘Female’. Until relatively recently it was usual to make a parallel distinction” between gender (grammatical) and sex (extralinguistics). Some grammarians continue their argumentation very much in Corbett’s vein [3, p. 1347-1353] agreement as the defining criterion of gender. English does show agreement, though in a very restricted sense - English has gender; though it is not an inflectional category and not as strongly grammaticalized as in other languages. Though some of the assumptions of Pullum and Huddleston take a very clear position in assessing the category, which is refreshing and helpful compared with the earlier descriptions. Typical wording can be found in the actual distributional properties of masculine ‘he’, feminine ‘she’ and neuter ‘it’. He and she referring to “entities which are neither male or female” are identified as the ‘core

uses' of 'he', 'she' and 'it'. In the case of animate non-human (animal) antecedents, scientists state the following:

- 'It' is generally used when the sex is unknown.
- 'He' and 'She' more likely with pets, domestic animals and creatures ranked high in the kingdom of animals (e.g. lions, tigers).
- The use of 'He' or 'She' indicates a somewhat greater degree of interest in or empathy with the referent.
- The use of 'It' with human antecedents: 'It' can be used with babies [5, 6].

We are also aware of extended usage of 'She'. We are informed that such usage is possible with two categories namely with 'countries' and 'ships'. 'Ships' represent the classical case of this extended usage of 'she', but it is found with other kinds of inanimates, such as cars. There is considerable variation among speakers as to how widely they make use of this kind of personification. It is often found with non-anaphoric uses of she. Here she is at last (referring to a ship) down she comes (with she referring, say to a tree that is being felled). It should be clear that the descriptions of gender in modern reference grammars are highly unsatisfactory in a number of respects. They either do not reflect actual language use, or they mix traditional with modern interpretation, which adds to the confusion rather than helps clarify it. The authors describe an idealized version of gender assignment in written standard English, thus ignoring the importance of a mostly spoken reality.

Description of gender in various works

An overview of the problem of category of Gender in the works of Western linguists (Grammarians)

The dominating view on Gender is that gender in English has lost much of its weight primarily because it was purely grammatical category without any solid basis in reality. Brinton [2, p. 426] follows the view stating that Modern English has 'natural gender' apposed to 'grammatical gender'. She also notes that 'gender is really a covered category' in nouns. While a related category of animacy (animate/inanimate) is not only expressed in personal, but also in interrogative and relative pronouns (what vs who, which vs who).

The interesting in her classification are the postulated animacy groupings: humans and higher animals on the one, lower animals and inanimates on the other scales. For example: he, she, who - human; tiger, lion - higher animals; ant, fly - lower animals; it, which - inanimates.

It is a description in an almost forgotten grammar of English that comes up again and again in publications on the status of gender in Modern English.

George Curme's English Grammar was first published in 1925, it was never intended as groundbreaking work, but served as a basic college grammar. Curme's introductory remarks in gender read as follows: "Gender is a distinction in the form of words to indicate sex. There are two kinds of gender in English: natural gender and the gender of animation" [4, p. 63-94].

What is really noteworthy about Curme's description is his category of a "gender of animation", which he explains as a sort of remnant from Old English times (and its grammatical gender) that has developed a life of its own: "The old habit of associating lifeless things with sex continued and in our plays. Mood with

their animated feelings still has strong sway". The author distances himself strongly from identification of animation from personification.

Close in his reference Grammar for students of English (1979) claims that nouns and pronouns, besides being animate and inanimate, can also be personal (human) and non-personal (animal or inanimate objects) e.g. we say: "Who was on the platform?" if we expect a personal noun as an answer, "What was on the platform?" if we expect a non-personal one. The author distinguishes between three types of gender: masculine, feminine, neuter. Thus he asserts that gender distinctions between male and female are based on natural gender and purely lexical in its character. Ralph's 'The sentence and its parts. A grammar of contemporary English [9, p. 528] is no exception to this point of view: Contemporary English does not have true gender. But in Modern English choice among the 3rd person singular pronoun forms he, she, and it normally on the basis of personality and sex or lack of them, and choice between such nouns as 'boy' and 'waiter', on the one hand, and 'girl' - 'waitress' on the other is ordinary on the basis of sex. Thus a kind of gender does make itself felt, if not true grammatical gender. So, we may see the growing concern of most grammarians towards the issue hard to treat the category of gender of the English noun not as a grammatical item, but mostly as lexical one.

An overview of the problem of category of Gender in the works of Home grammarians

The problem of grammatical gender of the English noun also takes the central position in the works of home domestic scholars as a disputable category of the English noun. A whole ten pages of A. E. Smirnitsky's theoretical morphology of English are devoted to proving the non-existence of gender in English [10, p. 139-148] either in the grammatical, or even in the strictly lexico-grammatical sense. The only sign which allows us to talk about category of gender of the English noun is its relevance to the 3rd person singular pronouns he, she and it. According to Smirnitsky we can only speak only about the well-known semantic classification of words based on the division on animate and inanimate referents with the further subdivision of animate referents corresponding to their biological sex. On these grounds appears the secondary classification based on cultural and historical tradition (e.g. love - he, peace - she, ship - she etc.) in other words, in Modern English the gender category of the English noun relies not on grammatical but on semantic, cultural and historic principles.

Conclusion

We gave review of scientific achievements worldwide in the studies of the grammatical gender of the English noun; presented new tendencies in the field of linguistic studies of gender category and its consequences on language structure conditioned by the feminist language planning; defined the renewed role of the pronoun in the constructions of the English language; compiled a glossary of gender-neutral occupational terms in order to reduce the negative effects of sexist language and assumptions. Thus, the aim to investigate the impact of gender policy on the structure of modern English language has been achieved. We also hope the

discussion presented here will be a topic of further research and valuable asset in establishing equal opportunities for every individual of human race.

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FOCUS-GROUP AS A QUALITATIVE METHOD FOR STUDY OF COMPLIANCE IN CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE PATIENTS

Preamble

Patient's nonadherence to treatment is one of the most serious issues for modern medicine. WHO experts in the guideline [6] thoroughly analyze the reasons for poor adherence to long-term therapy and outline a wide range of factors influencing adherence to long-term therapy. At that it is emphasized that none of those factors is decisive. It appears to us that all reasons for noncompliance should be divided into two large groups: intentional (or deliberate) and unintentional (unwitting) actions of the patients [3]. One of the reasons of noncompliance can be patient-physician misunderstanding or patient's lack of trust in his/her physician [1, 6].

A focus group could be defined as a group of interacting individuals having some common interest or characteristics, brought together by a moderator, who uses the group and its interaction as a way to gain information about a specific or focused issue and/or motivation for certain actions [2, 4]. Focus-group normally consists of 7-12 individuals who do not know each other [1, 5]. If the number of participants is smaller – it is impossible to gain verifiable information in view of the lack of individuals. If the number of participants exceeds twelve there is not enough time for everyone to speak out. The participants should have some common characteristics which have relevance to the focused issue [4]. An important advantage of this method is that many unconscious attitudes are uncovered during the interview and become conscious over the course of interaction [4].

Study Goal

To study the reasons influencing patient behavior and patient adherence to long-term therapy by means of focus-group interview.

Methods: The study took place in January and October 2012. It involved patients with chronic cardiovascular disease. Altogether 6 groups of patients were interviewed. Three of them comprised of the patients who participated in various clinical studies (conducted in different medical centers of Saratov) for cardiovascular disease: coronary artery disease (CAD), chronic heart failure (HF), arterial hypertension and followed all recommendations of physician (hereinafter referred to as focus-group №1). Three other groups consisted of patients with multiple hospitalizations for cardiovascular events, who were hospitalized again to the Cardiology Department of Clinical Hospital due to exacerbation of cardiovascular condition, who partially followed, or at times completely ignored out-patient therapy after discharge from hospital (hereinafter referred to as focus-group №2).

All patients who participated in this study were selected by their attending doctors. The number of persons per group varied from 7 to 12. Each of 6 groups was interviewed in turns with the help of moderator (experienced qualified sociologist, without medical education, who did not know the patients). Interviews lasted for about 1.5 hours and were video and voice recorded.

The questions covered the attitude of the patients towards their condition, their awareness of their condition, therapy, participation in medical decision making, motivation for treatment, adherence to therapy as well as patient-physician interaction. All questions were direct. Medical researcher (with rich background in the area of compliance to long-term therapy) followed on-line broadcast of the interviews and proposed additional questions to the moderator via texting or notes submitted through an assistant. Afterwards the interviews were taken down in shorthand. The results were discussed by the sociologist and medical researchers. All patients participated of their own free will and signed informed consent.

This study was based on assumption that noncompliance can be divided into intentional (or deliberate) and unintentional (unwitting) actions of patients [1].

Results

47 cardiovascular patients participated in the study. Median age was 59 years. Focus-group №1 comprised of 25 patients: 17 (36.2%) men and 9 (19.1 %) women, out of which 25 (53.2%) with arterial hypertension, 25 (53.2%) – CAD, 22 (46.8%) – myocardial infarction in the past, 23 (48.9%) – HF, 3 (6.4%) – acute cerebrovascular event in the past, 8 (17%) – chronic cerebral ischemia, 5 (10.6%) – atrial fibrillation (AF), 12 (25.5%) – obesity, 9 (19.1%) – diabetes mellitus, 11 (23.4%) – dyslipidemia. Focus-group №2 consisted of 22 patients: 8 (17%) men and 13 (27.7%) women, out of which 19 (40.4%) with arterial hypertension, 20 (42.6%) – CAD, 6 (12.8%) – myocardial infarction in the past, 19 (40.4%) – HF, 4 (85.1%) – acute cerebrovascular event in the past, 6 (12.8%) – chronic cerebral ischemia, 8 (17%) – AF, 12 (25.5%) – obesity, 5 (10.6%) – diabetes mellitus, 5 (10.6%) – dyslipidemia. It should be noted that the patients from the first group consented without any problems whereas the patients from the second group were less willing to participate. The groups were quite comparable. There were more patients with myocardial infarction in the past in focus-group №1 ($p=,00010$).

Patients from focus-group №1 assume that their medical condition is their «Fate» or «Catastrophe». The first cardiovascular event was deemed by the patients as «accident» and they were certain that they were «healthy» but reoccurrence of the condition made them realize how serious their condition was and now the think of their medical issue as «a way of life». Information about their condition is important but only in the amount that allows them to react adequately to the changes in their well-being, to feel comfortably (which pills to take, who to call in case of emergency). They do not want to know more (concerning the meaning of the condition, therapy options) – «ignorance is bliss». For the patients of this group the most important part of therapy is their interaction with their physician. They take this interaction in terms of complete, absolute trust in their physician and subsequently they completely rely on physician's opinion in medical decision-making. For them – participation in clinical study means constant control and attention from their physician, health care, «hope for the better», complete trust not only in their physician but in prescribed medications (even placebo «may be of help»). Clinic staff members for them are professionals («Jacks of all trades»). At the same time they do not deny their special sympathy and attachment to a specific physician. In emergency situations they can seek help from another medical researcher, if «their own» physician is unavailable. But they prefer only their regular

physician for long-term therapy. Most of the patients of this focus-group took decision to receive long-term therapy within the framework of clinical studies due to unwillingness to receive therapy in out-patient medical institutions and unavailability of «the same level» therapy, because there are waiting lists, queues and very limited time for interaction with the physician. The patients from this group observe with reverence not only the medication intake routine but day routine and follow-up examinations for clinical study program («it's not much of a hassle»). Some difficulties may arise related to diet – especially for patients with diabetes. These patients are completely satisfied with their therapy. Long-term therapy for them is not only a way to longer and better life, but also prevention of complications and reoccurring events of their condition. Taking medications does not interfere with their life styles and prolongs their lives. Patients of this group emphasize important role of their families in therapy process.

These patients feel that the patients who do not follow medical recommendations have not yet experienced the moment in their lives that can make them reconsider their attitude towards their condition and realize its seriousness («Better never than late»).

Before presenting the results of the interviews with the patients from focus-group №2 it should be noted that the behavior of these patients varied a lot. Patients from the first two groups were characterized by their physicians as patients who were not taking medications regularly and who felt negatively towards therapy. These patients also felt negatively about the interviews. Patients from the third group were characterized by their physicians as patients who were taking therapy regularly but who confessed during the interviews that they did not follow all recommendations. These patients were very similar to those who participated in clinical studies.

For the patients from focus-group №2 their condition is «another stage in their life», lack not only of health but limitations in their professional lives, physical activities, strain on the family budget, recreational limitations – to sum up «invalid life-style». Health in their lives is «not a priority»; priority is work («you should live by the last day»). Hospitalization for them is wasted time. Their condition makes them think that they can lose their job as the main source of income. They do not realize seriousness of their condition, preferring to think about it as temporary exacerbation. They are certain that after treatment they will return to normal life they are used to; they completely deny existence of chronic conditions. Therapy is over for them once they feel better and begins again when they feel worse. These patients state that they would like to know more about their condition in order to overcome it, prevent complications but they do nothing for this and take no efforts to get such information. They justify their laziness by lack of time in view of work, everyday problems, forgetfulness and absence of continuity between hospitals and out-patient services, lack of information provided by out-patient physicians, poor quality of out-patient health care or its absence; they complain that out-patient physicians are «inexperienced», «not caring», «not interested». Patients from this group are not satisfied that there is limited time for patient-physician interaction («you can't do much for 7 minutes»), meaning they are not satisfied with the way this system functions. The change from the hospital to out-patient services is «one long ordeal». Even when their conditions gets worse they do not seek help from out-

patient services but prefer hospitalization. Patients were asked why they seek therapy. Besides out-patient polyclinic services there are other options – private clinics, consultation services. Why they do not look into other options is they «want» therapy? The response was «You need financial resources to seek help from consultation services, to pay for this, one must work and if you work there is no time for health». That is their vicious circle and the fault is not theirs but out-patient physicians'. Patients of the first two «unreliable» groups stopped at that. They took all responsibility for everything off themselves and emphatically and even aggressively refused to talk about it despite all efforts of the moderator. During the interviews with the patients from the third group it became clear that their noncompliance is conscious and marked by laziness, carelessness, nonchalance or, on the contrary, excessive selfishness.

Taking medications for most patients is linked with fear to get addicted and gain «a bunch of other health issues» – «fix one thing and break another». Feeling bad and invalid life-style is their motivation for long-term therapy. These patients state that they want to cooperate with their physician, take part in medical decision-making, but out-patient physicians «do not inspire confidence»; they feel hurt because they are not understood and subsequently refuse to receive therapy. They would be satisfied with therapy process if they could get sufficient information about their condition, regular control, if the out-patient physicians were more careful and attentive. To the question «If you were offered to participate in clinical study, where you were provided with sufficient attention and control – would you agree?» the patients from the third group answered positively.

Discussion in both groups was focused on conscious compliance with medical recommendations i.e. conscious continuation of long-term therapy. High rate of routine observance in the first group (i.e. low rate of missing medication intake) is related to conscious willingness of the patient to receive therapy. The issue of how regular the patients from the second group took medications was not discussed because they refused follow-up therapy.

Discussion

There is certain dynamics in how chronic condition patients feel about their condition [5] and this was uncovered in our interviews. Patients from both groups show successive change of clearly defined stages [5] in terms of their attitude towards their condition: premedical phase, stereotype breaking phase, phase of adjustment to condition, surrender phase, phase of establishing compensatory mechanisms to adjust to life. Only the patients from focus-group №1 completely experienced and lived through these phases whereas the patients from focus group №2 are somewhere between stereotype breaking phase and surrender phase. Patients from the first group show adequate and calm reaction to their condition, they unconditionally trust their physician, follow all medical recommendations and are grateful for help. Patients from group №2 show negative and destructive reaction; they either do not take recommendations seriously or completely ignore them, all that leading to adverse consequences in the future. Patients of this group are most likely something between ergopathic and anosognostic types – they want to be able to work and try to ignore thoughts about their medical condition.

All patients show signs of paternalistic model of physician-patient interaction i.e. physician is the main part in therapy and someone who takes all responsibility. Trust in physician is absolute and patients are willing to do everything they are told by their doctor. But this model functions differently in study groups. The patients from the first group end up following all recommendations and the patients from the second group feel that they had not received adequate help in a polyclinic, their trust had been undervalued and subsequently they end up refusing follow-up treatment.

Patients from both groups emphasized that out-patient polyclinic physicians lack time for physician-patient interaction. Of course patients' complaints about physicians and health care system can be justified by polyclinic work overload, understaffed clinics, red tape, lack of necessary equipment but these complaints lead to utterly negative clinical and economic problems.

There are certain personal characteristics related to social skills of the patients in both groups. Patients participating in clinical studies – are intelligent, quite easy-going people with good communication skills. First two groups of focus group 2 are «unreliable», marked by internal personal attitude and negative attitude towards therapy since the very beginning. Patients from the third group are similar (in terms of personal characteristics) to the patients who participate in clinical studies. They are aware that the problem of not following recommendations is their own problem; they just have not yet met the right physician who would inspire them to follow long-term therapy recommendations even in clinical studies.

Cardiovascular disease patients' compliance depends on severity level and reoccurrence rate of the condition. Feeling of well-being encourages the patients from the first group to follow recommendations of the physician whereas the patients from the second group discontinue therapy.

Perhaps one of the factors that influenced the results of this study was that the patients for the second group were selected by their attending physicians. We can assume that these physicians intuitively divided patients into two groups: more and less sympathetic. This division can be considered as 'intuitive predictor' for compliance. On the other hand – prejudice of the physician about patients can inspire negative behavior of patients in the future.

Conclusion

All patients show signs of paternalistic model of physician-patient. The patients from the first group end up following all recommendations and the patients from the second group feel that they had not received adequate help in a polyclinic, their trust had been undervalued and subsequently they end up refusing follow-up treatment. Feeling of well-being encourages the patients from the first group to follow recommendations of the physician whereas the patients from the second group discontinue therapy. Much depends on the physician, on his/her willingness and ability to explain therapy, highlight key points and establish trust-based relations with the patient.

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АНДРЕЙ НИКОЛАЕВИЧ МАТВЕЕВ / ANDREI MATVEEV

РАЗВИТИЕ СОЦИАЛЬНОЙ ИНИЦИАТИВНОЙ ЛИЧНОСТИ ДЕТЕЙ В СИСТЕМЕ ДОПОЛНИТЕЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SOCIAL AND INITIATIVE PERSONALITY OF CHILDREN IN THE SYSTEM OF ADDITIONAL EDUCATION

Аннотация / Abstract

В данной статье на примере кружка «Эко плюс» были предложены экологические акции, направленные на развитие социально инициативной молодежи. Подробно представлены этапы реализации акции «Пластикоед», которые демонстрируют модель путей решения экологических проблем. Данные мероприятия приводят в свою очередь к осознанию ребенком самого себя как социально значимого, востребованного и полноценного гражданина республики Казахстан.

In this article on the example of the club 'Eco Plus' ecological actions aimed at the development of the social initiative of the youth were offered. The stages of the implementation of the action «Plastic eater» are presented in detail and demonstrate the model of the ways to solve the environmental problems. These activities lead in turn to the self-realization by the child of himself/herself as a socially significant, high demand and full-fledged citizen of the Republic of Kazakhstan.

Глобальные проблемы экологии – одна из наиболее актуальных проблем современности, поэтому школьникам с юных лет необходимо привить бережное отношение к природе и научить разумно использовать научные и технические достижения на благо природы и человека, развить творческо-практический социально полезный потенциал у детей для реализации путей решения значимых проблем экологии [5, с. 4-7].

Для того чтобы воспитать экологическую личность, способную решать современные проблемы экологии, необходимо дать знания по экологии, основы полевых исследований, провести практические и исследовательские занятия, а также творческо-практические мероприятия и социально значимые акции и митинги.

На современном этапе экологического образования существует много неразрешенных проблем для реализации социально инициативного потенциала детей. Вся ценность критерия организуемых мероприятий по экологии основывается на их массовости и творчестве без учета социально-практической значимости. Цель и задачи чаще всего абстрактны, неактуальны, не направлены на решение каких-либо существующих проблем и реальных практических задач. Форма проведения чаще проходит в виде фестиваля, концерта и носит только лишь развлекательно-познавательный характер.

В результате формируется слабо инициативная личность без критического мышления, не способная самостоятельно решать практические задачи и проблемы экологии.

На современном этапе Республика Казахстан стоит на пути развития независимости, демократии, свободы слова и конкурентоспособного, социально-инициативного общества. И, конечно же, будущее развитие и процветание страны зависит от молодого подрастающего поколения.

Поэтому руководителем кружка «Эко плюс» в образовательной деятельности в системе дополнительного образования ставилась задача развить у детей практические навыки для реализации решения глобальных экологических проблем самостоятельными усилиями школьников на локальном уровне и тем самым сформировать конкурентную и социально-инициативную личность, способную глобально мыслить, решать местные локальные проблемы. Все проводимые занятия и мероприятия были направлены на воплощения полезных практически-прикладных задач.

Для реализации поставленных целей перед началом функционирования деятельности кружка экологии «Эко плюс» КГКП «Дворец детей и юношества» города Жезказгана был проведен цикл творческо-практических семинаров «Глобальные проблемы экологии – глазами детей» [2]. На семинаре детям был предложен самостоятельный выбор практических мер для реализации глобальных проблем экологии, поставлены опыты и эксперименты, а также разработаны проекты о путях их решения. Такие семинары-практикумы для школьников являются основными путеводителями по программе учебного года. После семинаров ребята приступают к самостоятельному выбору интересующих их проблем путем поиска информации и путей их решения, знакомятся с мировым опытом через литературу, интернет ресурсы и предлагают свои собственные.

Кружковцами было проведено множество различных акций и мероприятий, поднимающих и решающих множество экологических проблем местного региона. Самые насущные проблемы экологии, выбранные школьниками, оказались: катастрофическое загрязнение окружающей среды и снижение биоразнообразия.

По снижению катастрофического загрязнения окружающей среды ребятами были проведены следующие акции:

1. Акция «Не пейте дети молоко – будете здоровы!» направлена против несанкционированной торговли молоком в использованных пластиковых бутылках, которая может нанести вред здоровью покупателя [1];

2. Акция «Эта ртуть - просто жуть!» поднимающая проблему отсутствия доступных для населения пунктов приема ртутьсодержащих ламп [3];

3. Акция «Эко-сумки» пропагандирует население против использования бесплатных пластиковых пакетов, путем обмена самостоятельно пошитых ребятами матерчатых многоразовых сумок на полиэтиленовые пакеты в местном супермаркете [8, с. 37];

4. Акция «Чистый берег!» направлена на очистку прибрежной зоны местного водохранилища от мусора, путем его сбора и дальнейшей утилизации [6];

5. Акция сбора и переработки макулатуры в бумагу ручной работы, для дальнейшего ее использования в изготовлении различных поделок и эко-конструкций [4];

6. Акция сбора и утилизации пластиковых бутылок «Пластикоед» [9, с. 30].

Для предотвращения снижения биоразнообразия в кружке «Эко плюс» были проведены следующие акции и мероприятия:

1. Акция «Малёк должен жить!» призывает население не принимать участие в несанкционированной торговле и ловле неполовозрелой рыбы [11, с. 15];

2. Летняя полевая школьная практика по биологии и экологии на базе Жезказганского ботанического сада для изучения, спасения и сохранения местной флоры и фауны региона [10, с. 48-49].

На примере акции «Пластикоед» хотелось бы подробно продемонстрировать структуру подготовки и проведения акций кружка «Эко плюс».

А) Выявление проблемы (необходимо организовать и провести семинар об одной из экологических проблем). В данном примере это проблема загрязнения окружающей среды, таким видом твердых бытовых отходов как пластиковые бутылки.

Б) Поиск путей решения (школьники предлагают самостоятельно выбранный путь решения). Одним из самых доступных и интересных способов в данном случае оказался пункт приема пластиковых бутылок «Пластикоед». «Пластикоед» – инопланетянин из другой планеты питающийся пластиковыми бутылками [12].

В) Решение проблемы (для реализации акции ребята разрабатывают и сочиняют речевки, листовки и семинар – пропаганду для школьников города, в котором предлагают поучаствовать в акции, установив свой собственный пункт приема пластиковой упаковки).

Г) Результат (тысячи пластиковых бутылок были собраны в школах и во дворце детей и юношества). Акция приобрела массовый характер, в которой участвовали все жители города, заинтересованные в чистоте окружающей среды.

Все сырье, собранное кружковцами, в дальнейшем подлежало утилизации путем конструирования массивных и креативных эко-скульптур.

Первой конструкцией ребят была самая высокая в Казахстане ёлка из пластиковых бутылок, построенная в канун нового 2012 года. Ко дню космонавтики юные экологи соорудили космическую ракету. И уже по традиции в канун нового 2013 года из разных цветов, вырезанных из пластиковых бутылок, кружковцы построили еще одну необычную праздничную ёлку, которая радует жителей города мерцанием своих ярких огней [13].

Так как цель акции направлена на информирование масс, поэтому работы ребят были широко освещены местными СМИ. Также опубликовано множество статей, рассказов и докладов в журналах, интернет изданиях и в сборниках конференций по биологии и экологии.

Таким образом, методы и способы педагогики, использованные для экологического образования школьников путем проведения всех перечисленных акций в Казахстане, применялись впервые. Ребята в результате своей социальной инициативы решали на практике глобальные проблемы

экологии в регионе. И пусть в мировом глобальном масштабе – это будет всего лишь песчинка, главное, что в результате ребенок в своем еще юном возрасте смог почувствовать свою значимость, пользу и востребованность в обществе своей страны. И, когда ребенок начинает ощущать необходимость принятия мер по спасению планеты от кардинального загрязнения окружающей среды и снижения биоразнообразия, то нам взрослым можно быть уверенными в будущем развитии и процветании нашей республики Казахстан.

Желаем каждому быть гражданином своей родины в самом широком смысле слова. Быть социально активной личностью способной приносить пользу своему государству и помнить, что решение экологических вопросов в своей стране, в своем регионе – это дело каждого жителя без исключения [7, с. 4-7].

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ВИТАЛИЙ АНАТОЛЬЕВИЧ ДУДАРЕВ / VITALIY DUDAREV

**ПРОИЗВОДСТВО ПО УГОЛОВНЫМ ДЕЛАМ В ОТНОШЕНИИ
НЕСОВЕРШЕННОЛЕТНИХ ПО УПК РОССИИ И УКРАИНЫ:
СРАВНИТЕЛЬНО-ПРАВОВОЙ АСПЕКТ**

**PROCEEDINGS IN CRIMINAL CASES IN RESPECT OF JUVENILES IN
THE CRIMINAL PROCEDURE CODE OF RUSSIA AND UKRAINE:
COMPARATIVE AND LEGAL ASPECT**

Аннотация / Abstract

Статья посвящена исследованию уголовного производства в отношении несовершеннолетних по уголовно-процессуальному кодексу Российской Федерации и республики Украины. Были выявлены как сходства, так и различия. Особое внимание уделялось возрасту несовершеннолетних, обстоятельствам подлежащих установлению, допросу, участию различных категорий лиц в досудебном и судебном производствах с участием несовершеннолетних.

The article deals with studying criminal proceedings in respect of juveniles according to the Criminal Procedure Code of the Russian Federation and the Republic of Ukraine. As a result both similarities and differences have been found out. Great emphasis is placed on the age of juveniles, substantiating the facts, interrogation and participation of different individuals in pre-trial procedure and in criminal proceedings with the involvement of juveniles.

В России в настоящее время проблема подростковой преступности приобретает важное приоритетное направление правовой политики государства. Такая политика должна проводиться с учетом как российского опыта борьбы с преступностью несовершеннолетних, так и опыта зарубежных государств.

Одним из важных критериев, определяющих эффективность любого законодательства, является возможность реализации прав и свобод человека. Причем, это в равной мере относится как к внутреннему государственному праву, так и к международному.

Рост преступности несовершеннолетних в Российской Федерации – это реалии нашего времени. Ежегодно расследуется более миллиона преступлений с участием несовершеннолетних, значительная часть которых относится к категории особо опасных. Необходимо учитывать, что преступность несовершеннолетних обусловлена не только общесоциальными проблемами, но и проблемами формирования личности, носящими индивидуальный характер. Несовершеннолетние наиболее чутко реагируют на изменения, происходящие в обществе, по сравнению с лицами старших возрастных групп. Поэтому применение знаний о специфике личности несовершеннолетнего в законодательстве и правоприменительной практике обязательно.

Несовершеннолетние относятся к лицам, требующим повышенного уровня защиты со стороны общества и государства. Особую актуальность данное требование приобретает в сфере уголовного судопроизводства. С одной стороны государство должно обеспечивать неотвратимость наказания, но с другой, делать все, чтобы несовершеннолетние лица не были чрезмерно травмированы самим фактом осуществления в отношении них уголовного преследования. В Минимальных стандартных правилах Организации Объединенных Наций, касающихся отправления правосудия в отношении несовершеннолетних (Пекинские правила) [2], прямо указано, что правосудие в отношении должно являться составной частью процесса национального развития каждой страны в рамках всестороннего обеспечения социальной справедливости для всех несовершеннолетних, одновременно содействуя, таким образом, защите молодежи и поддержанию мирного порядка в обществе (п. 1.4). Система правосудия в отношении несовершеннолетних направлена в первую очередь на обеспечение благополучия несовершеннолетнего и обеспечения того, чтобы любые меры воздействия на несовершеннолетних правонарушителей были всегда соизмеримы как с особенностями личности правонарушителя, так и с обстоятельствами правонарушения (п. 5.1).

Порядок производства по уголовным делам в отношении несовершеннолетних, регламентированный главой 50 УПК РФ, в полной мере соответствует требованиям международных стандартов и обеспечивает данной категории лиц дополнительные социальные и правовые гарантии.

Производство по уголовному делу о преступлении, совершенном несовершеннолетним, осуществляется в общем порядке, а в главе 50 УПК РФ содержатся особенности, вытекающие из особого социального статуса данного лица.

Изучение уголовно-процессуального законодательства зарубежных стран, позволяет выявлять его достоинства и недостатки. Правильно оценивать и сравнивать указанные нормы УПК РФ, определять направления их дальнейшего совершенствования.

Как говорил в своё время французский ученый М. Ансель, сравнительный анализ позволяет лучше узнать право своей страны, способен вооружить юриста идеями и аргументами, которые нельзя получить даже при очень хорошем знании только собственного права [1, с. 38].

20 ноября 2012 года вступил в силу новый Уголовный процессуальный кодекс (УПК) Украины, полностью меняющий судебную и следственную процедуру в стране. Особый интерес в этом плане представляет 38 глава УПК Украины – «Уголовное производство в отношении несовершеннолетних».

В связи с вышеизложенным представляет интерес анализ некоторых новаций уголовно-процессуального законодательства Украины с точки зрения применимости в отечественном праве и правоприменительной практики, особенно, в части процессуальных прав и гарантий несовершеннолетних участников уголовного судопроизводства.

1. Согласно российскому УПК порядок производства по уголовным делам в отношении несовершеннолетних, применяется к лицам, не достигшим возраста восемнадцати лет (ст. 420 УПК РФ) [3]. В новом УПК Украины мы находим аналогичную норму. Порядок уголовного судопроизводства в

отношении несовершеннолетних – в уголовном производстве по уголовным преступлениям, совершенным лицами, не достигшими восемнадцатилетнего возраста (ст. 484 УПК Украины) [4]. На возрасте несовершеннолетних в указанных странах хотелось бы остановиться подробнее. В российском УПК (ст. 5 – основные понятия) мы не находим определения несовершеннолетнего, а исходя из статьи 420 – понимаем что это лицо не достигшее возраста 18 лет [3]. Новый УПК Украины на наш взгляд в этом плане является более продуктивным. В ст. 3 (определение основных терминов) мы находим, определение малолетнего лица – это ребенок до 14 лет (п. 11) и несовершеннолетнего – малолетнее лицо, а также ребенок в возрасте от 14 до 18 лет (п. 12) [4].

2. Идем дальше, что касается обстоятельств, подлежащих установлению. В УПК РФ их три (ст. 421) [3]:

- 1) возраст несовершеннолетнего, число, месяц и год рождения;
- 2) условия жизни и воспитания несовершеннолетнего, уровень психического развития и иные особенности его личности;
- 3) влияние на несовершеннолетнего старших по возрасту лиц.

При обращении в УПК Украины находим, что их четыре (ст. 485) [4]:

- 1) полные и всесторонние сведения о личности несовершеннолетнего: его возраст (число, месяц, год рождения), состояние здоровья и уровень развития, другие социально-психологические черты личности, которые необходимо учитывать при индивидуализации ответственности или избрании меры воспитательного характера. При наличии данных об умственной отсталости несовершеннолетнего, не связанной с психической болезнью, должно быть также установлено, мог ли он полностью осознавать значение своих действий и в какой мере мог руководить ими;
- 2) отношение несовершеннолетнего к совершенному им деянию;
- 3) условия жизни и воспитания несовершеннолетнего;
- 4) наличие взрослых подстрекателей и других соучастников уголовного преступления.

Анализируя указанные положения, получаем, что УПК Украины более детально указал обстоятельства подлежащие доказыванию. Среди новых – такое как отношение самого несовершеннолетнего к совершенному им деянию. Также более полно раскрываются сведения о личности несовершеннолетнего.

3. Выделение в отдельное производство уголовного дела в отношении несовершеннолетнего. Данное положение, как в УПК РФ (ст. 422), так и в УПК Украины (ст. 494) практически совпадают. Стоит лишь оговориться, что в УПК Украины в данной статье речь идет о правонарушении. В новом УПК Украины понятие «преступление» расширяется до определения «уголовное правонарушение», которое включает в себя преступление и уголовный проступок. Уголовный проступок – новация для украинского законодательства, главные отличия – меньшая степень тяжести, упрощенная процедура привлечения к ответственности, более гуманные меры пресечения.

4. Применение к несовершеннолетнему подозреваемому, обвиняемому меры пресечения. При решении вопроса об избрании меры пресечения к

несовершеннолетнему подозреваемому, обвиняемому должна обсуждаться возможность отдачи его под присмотр (ч. 2 ст. 423 УПК РФ). О задержании, заключении под стражу или продлении срока содержания под стражей несовершеннолетнего подозреваемого, обвиняемого незамедлительно извещаются его законные представители (ч. 3 ст. 423 УПК РФ) [3]. В отличие от нашего законодательства, в Украине – задержание и содержание под стражей могут применяться к несовершеннолетнему лишь в случае, если он подозревается или обвиняется в совершении тяжкого или особо тяжкого преступления (ч. 2 ст. 492 УПК Украины). О задержании и взятии под стражу несовершеннолетнего, так же как и у нас (УПК РФ) немедленно извещаются его родители или лица, их заменяющие (ч. 3 ст. 492 УПК Украины) [4].

5. Что касается порядка вызова несовершеннолетнего подозреваемого, обвиняемого? По УПК РФ вызов несовершеннолетнего подозреваемого, обвиняемого, не находящегося под стражей, к следователю, дознавателю или в суд производится через его законных представителей, а если несовершеннолетний содержится в специализированном учреждении для несовершеннолетних – через администрацию этого учреждения – ст. 424.

По УПК Украины – несовершеннолетний подозреваемый или обвиняемый вызывается следователем, прокурором, следственным судьей или судом через его родителей или других законных представителей – ст. 489. Новый УПК Украины ввел такую новую фигуру как – следственный судья. Это судья первой инстанции, к полномочиям которого относится судебный контроль над соблюдением прав, свобод и интересов лиц в уголовном производстве. Следственный судья (следственные судьи) в суде первой инстанции избирается собранием судей из состава судей этого суда [4].

6. Участие законных представителей несовершеннолетних подозреваемых, обвиняемых в ходе досудебного производства по уголовному делу. Законные представители несовершеннолетнего подозреваемого, обвиняемого допускаются к участию в уголовном деле на основании постановления следователя, дознавателя с момента первого допроса несовершеннолетнего в качестве подозреваемого или обвиняемого. При всем этом законный представитель имеет определенный перечень прав (ч. 1 ст. 426 УПК РФ). В УПК Украины данный перечень прав не закреплён. Как и у нас (ч. 4 ст. 426 УПК РФ), в Украине законный представитель может быть отстранен от участия в уголовном деле, если его участие может нанести ущерб интересам несовершеннолетнего подозреваемого, обвиняемого (ч. 3 ст. 488 УПК Украины).

7. Что касается удаления несовершеннолетнего подсудимого из зала судебного заседания? По ходатайству стороны, а также по собственной инициативе суд вправе принять решение об удалении несовершеннолетнего подсудимого из зала судебного заседания на время исследования обстоятельств, которые могут оказать на него отрицательное воздействие (ч. 1 ст. 429 УПК РФ). После возвращения несовершеннолетнего подсудимого в зал судебного заседания председательствующий сообщает ему в необходимых объеме и форме содержание судебного разбирательства, происшедшего в его отсутствие, и представляет несовершеннолетнему подсудимому возможность

задать вопросы лицам, допрошенным в его отсутствие (ч. 2 ст. 429 УПК РФ) [3].

В новом УПК Украины в отличие от нашего уголовно-процессуального кодекса говорится о временном удалении несовершеннолетнего обвиняемого из зала судебного заседания. Суд, выслушав мнение прокурора, защитника и законного представителя несовершеннолетнего обвиняемого, имеет право своим постановлением удалить его из зала судебного заседания на время исследования обстоятельств, которые могут негативно повлиять на него (ч. 1 ст. 495 УПК Украины). После возвращения несовершеннолетнего обвиняемого председательствующий знакомит его с результатами исследования обстоятельств, проведенного в его отсутствие, и предоставляет ему возможность задать вопросы лицам, которые были допрошены в его отсутствие (ч. 2 ст. 495 УПК Украины) [4].

8. Еще одним положительным моментом УПК Украины является наличие статьи о производстве различного вида экспертиз ст. 486 – это комплексная психолого-психиатрическая и психологическая экспертиза подозреваемого или обвиняемого. В случае необходимости для решения вопроса о наличии у несовершеннолетнего подозреваемого или обвиняемого психического заболевания или задержки психического развития и его способности полностью или частично осознавать значение своих действий и руководить ими в конкретной ситуации назначается комплексная психолого-психиатрическая экспертиза (ч. 1 ст. 486). Для выяснения уровня развития, других социально-психологических черт личности несовершеннолетнего подозреваемого или обвиняемого, которые необходимо учитывать при назначении наказания и избрании меры воспитательного характера, может быть назначена психологическая экспертиза (ч. 2 ст. 486) [4].

9. Отдельно стоит сказать о принудительных мерах воспитательных характера применяемых к несовершеннолетним. В российском уголовном процессе данные меры применяются если при рассмотрении уголовного дела о преступлении небольшой или средней тяжести будет установлено, что несовершеннолетний, совершивший это преступление, может быть исправлен без применения уголовного наказания, то суд прекращает уголовное дело в отношении такого несовершеннолетнего и применяет к нему принудительную меру воспитательного воздействия (ч. 1 ст. 431 УПК РФ) [3]. Если во время досудебного расследования прокурор придет к выводу о возможности исправления несовершеннолетнего, который обвиняется в совершении впервые уголовного проступка, преступления небольшой тяжести или неосторожного преступления средней тяжести без применения уголовного наказания, он составляет ходатайство о применении к несовершеннолетнему обвиняемому принудительных мер воспитательного характера и направляет его в суд (ч. 1 ст. 497 УПК Украины) [4].

10. Ну а напоследок, хотелось бы сказать о проведении допроса по УПК РФ и республики Украины. Такое следственное действие как допрос, является весьма распространенным и эффективным способом собирания доказательств. В тоже время допрос несовершеннолетнего подозреваемого, обвиняемого, свидетеля или потерпевшего представляет собой сложное и многогранное

следственное действие, которое требует от сотрудника правоохранительных органов особой и тщательной подготовки.

Участие педагога (психолога) в уголовном судопроизводстве обусловлено необходимостью учета возрастных (прежде всего психологических) особенностей несовершеннолетних при проведении следственных действий в частности допроса и является важной дополнительной гарантией прав и интересов несовершеннолетних субъектов уголовно-процессуальных правоотношений.

Допрос несовершеннолетнего подозреваемого, обвиняемого по российскому законодательству не может продолжаться без перерыва более 2 часов, а в общей сложности более 4 часов в день (ст. 425 УПК РФ). В допросе несовершеннолетнего подозреваемого, обвиняемого участвует защитник, который вправе задавать ему вопросы, а по окончании допроса знакомиться с протоколом и делать замечания о правильности и полноте сделанных в нем записей (ч. 2 ст. 425 УПК РФ). Также в допросе несовершеннолетнего подозреваемого, обвиняемого, не достигшего возраста шестнадцати лет либо достигшего этого возраста, но страдающего психическим расстройством или отстающего в психическом развитии, участие педагога или психолога обязательно (ч. 3 ст. 425 УПК РФ) [3].

Что же касается несовершеннолетних потерпевших в российском уголовном судопроизводстве, то в УПК РФ на них отводится всего лишь три нормы (ст. 188, 191 и 280) [3] регулирующих их участие. Но даже данные нормы, в значительно меньшей степени обеспечивают особый статус указанных участников уголовного процесса, чем нормы, которые регламентируют права и законные интересы несовершеннолетних подозреваемых и обвиняемых.

По УПК Украины допрос несовершеннолетнего подозреваемого или обвиняемого осуществляется в присутствии защитника (ст. 490), а также, если несовершеннолетний не достиг шестнадцатилетнего возраста или если несовершеннолетний признан умственно отсталым, на его допросе по решению следователя, прокурора, следователя судьи, суда или по ходатайству защитника обеспечивается участие законного представителя, педагога или психолога, а в случае необходимости – врача (ч. 1 ст. 491) [4].

В новом УПК Украины как и в старом (УПК Украины от 28 декабря 1960 [5]) – участие педагога, законных представителей, врача зависит от усмотрения следователя, прокурора (судьи и суда – это новая норма) и по ходатайству защитника. Новым является лишь то, что участвовать может – психолог. Поэтому данная норма украинского законодателя представляется нам не совсем совершенной.

Также хочется остановиться и на допросе малолетних и несовершеннолетних лиц. Согласно (ч. 1 ст. 226 УПК Украины) [4] допрос малолетнего или несовершеннолетнего лица проводится в присутствии законного представителя, педагога или психолога, а при необходимости – врача. Позитивным моментом является то, что в допросе принимает участие педагог (психолог). Большим плюсом является и то что, законодатель Украины предусмотрел участие законного представителя, педагога, психолога, врача в следственных (розыскных) действиях при участии малолетнего или

несовершеннолетнего лица (ст. 227 УПК Украины) [4]. По (ч. 2 ст. 226) [4] – допрос малолетнего или несовершеннолетнего лица не может продолжаться без перерыва сверх одного часа, а в целом – свыше двух часов в день. На данный момент это минимальное количество времени среди всех УПК СНГ, которое отводится на допрос несовершеннолетнего лица, на наш взгляд данная норма является положительной, так как в среднем примерная сосредоточенность несовершеннолетних при допросе как раз варьируется в пределах одного часа.

Таким образом, исходя из анализа уголовно-процессуального кодекса России и Украины были выявлены как сходства, так и различия в производстве по уголовным делам несовершеннолетних. Исходя из вышеизложенного нетрудно заметить, что значительная часть положений нового УПК Украины в большей степени соответствуют принципам Европейской Конвенции о защите прав человека и основных свобод, в частности – принципу правовой определенности, что, в свою очередь, позволяет сделать вывод о применимости в дальнейшем украинского опыта законодательства и правоприменительной практики в целях совершенствования отечественных процессуальных механизмов обеспечения прав участников процесса, в том числе и несовершеннолетних.

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**ГУЛЬНУР БОЛАТОВНА ЕНСЕБАЕВА, ГУЛЬНУР ЖАКСЫБАЕВНА
ТУЛЕУБАЕВА / GULNUR YENSEBAYEVA, GULNUR TULEUBAYEVA**

**НЕКОТОРЫЕ ВОПРОСЫ ИМПЛЕМЕНТАЦИИ КОНВЕНЦИИ ООН
ПРОТИВ ТРАНСНАЦИОНАЛЬНОЙ ОРГАНИЗОВАННОЙ
ПРЕСТУПНОСТИ В УГОЛОВНОМ ЗАКОНОДАТЕЛЬСТВЕ (НА
ПРИМЕРЕ РЕСПУБЛИКИ КАЗАХСТАН И РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ)**

**SOME IMPLEMENTATION ISSUES OF THE UN CONVENTION AGAINST
TRANSNATIONAL ORGANIZED CRIME IN THE CRIMINAL LEGISLATION
(A CASE OF THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN AND THE RUSSIAN
FEDERATION)**

Аннотация / Abstract

В статье рассматриваются некоторые вопросы имплементации Палермской Конвенции против транснациональной организованной преступности в уголовном законодательстве (на примере Республики Казахстан и Российской Федерации). В частности рассматривается такой вид наказания как конфискация имущества, как один из эффективных механизмов борьбы с транснациональной преступностью. Анализируются вопросы выдачи преступников, международного сотрудничества, мер, направленных на предупреждение отмывания преступных доходов.

In the article some implementation issues of Palermo Convention against Transnational Organized Crime in the criminal legislation (a case of the Republic of Kazakhstan and the Russian Federation) are considered. In particular, such type of punishment as the confiscation of the property – one of the most efficient mechanisms to combat transnational crime is studied. The issues of extradition, international cooperation and measures aimed at the prevention of money laundering are analyzed.

Введение

Как было отмечено на XII Конгрессе ООН по предупреждению преступности и уголовному правосудию (2010 г.), организованная преступность превратилась в вид деятельности, макроэкономические аспекты которой сравнимы с национальным доходом многих стран и товарооборотом крупнейших корпораций мира. В самые трудные времена кризиса, когда банки списывали убытки десятками миллиардов долларов, многие из них были «спасены» деньгами организованной преступности [4].

В. А. Номоконов, оценивая состояние борьбы с организованной преступностью (ОП) и коррупцией в России, отмечает, что принимаемые меры, даже, несмотря на некоторую активизацию попыток государственного противодействия коррупции, еще в целом явно неадекватны складывающейся криминальной ситуации и очень слабо учитывают соответствующие научные рекомендации. Помимо прочего, сегодня необходим комплексный анализ и постоянный мониторинг состояния организованной преступности для

выработки на этой основе адекватных мер противодействия. Без участия научных учреждений, профессиональных экспертов эта работа невозможна. До сих пор в стране отсутствует мощная и последовательная, научно обоснованная стратегия борьбы с организованной преступностью [9, с. 38; 3].

Анализ транснациональной организованной преступности

Республика Казахстан ратифицировала Конвенцию ООН против транснациональной организованной преступности [5]. Есть разные международные обязательства. Одни связаны с мораторием на смертную казнь, а другие – с реализацией целого комплекса антимafiaозных мер. Именно с их помощью победу в борьбе с мафией можно одержать и без применения радикальных средств. Действующее законодательство должно быть «отремонтировано» не в духе популистских лозунгов, а по международно-правовым чертежам. Как отмечает И. Ш. Борчашвили: «Уголовное законодательство не всегда, на наш взгляд, развивается на основе науки, а на основе рефлексии властей. Политика порой давит право, надо бы наоборот» [1].

В первую очередь это предполагает приведение в соответствие с положениями конвенций ООН национального законодательства, причем не, только уголовного, уголовно-процессуального, оперативно-розыскного и административного [10]. Например, в Конвенции ООН против коррупции содержатся в числе прочих требования к государствам-участникам принять надлежащие меры по обеспечению прозрачности и отчетности в управлении публичными финансами. Такие меры должны охватывать процедуры утверждения национального бюджета, своевременное предоставление отчетов о поступлениях и расходах, систему стандартов бухгалтерского учета и аудита и связанного с этим надзора. Предполагается также осуществить необходимые меры в целях формирования надлежащих систем закупок, достижения большей прозрачности финансирования политических партий и процедур отбора кандидатур на избираемые публичные должности, выработки надлежащих механизмов отбора и подготовки специалистов, которые могли бы занимать наиболее уязвимые с точки зрения коррупции публичные должности, и многое другое.

Что же касается Конвенции ООН против коррупции, то она направлена, прежде всего, на выявление и пресечение международных переводов незаконно приобретенных активов путем приостановления операций (замораживания), ареста, конфискации и возвращения доходов от преступлений.

Дискуссия

Одновременно с введением положений по либерализации уголовного законодательства в Российской Федерации отменен такой институт наказания, как конфискация имущества. Конфискация заменена на штрафы от 500 тыс. до 1 млн. рублей. Отмена положения Уголовного кодекса Российской Федерации (УК РФ) о конфискации имущества нарушает обязательства России по международным договорам: в ратифицированной РФ Конвенции Совета

Европы об отмывании, выявлении, изъятии и конфискации доходов от преступной деятельности под «доходом» понимается любая материальная выгода, полученная в результате совершения преступлений. В конвенциях ООН против транснациональной организованной преступности и коррупции понятие «доходы от преступления» означает любое имущество, приобретенное или полученное прямо или косвенно в результате совершения какого-либо преступления (а это далеко не вещественные доказательства) [10].

Таким образом, до внесения поправок в УК РФ в декабре 2003 г. узость значения термина «доход от преступления», понимаемого как «вещественное доказательство» и используемого в таком смысле в Уголовно-процессуальном кодексе РФ (УПК РФ), компенсировалась положением о конфискации имущества в нашем же УК. Внесенные в УК РФ поправки, однако, нарушили баланс между двумя кодексами, отбросив Россию на обочину международного сотрудничества в борьбе с организованной преступностью и коррупцией. С введением новаций фактически сошли на нет многие процедуры сотрудничества в области конфискации, особенно в части распоряжения конфискованными доходами и имуществом. В случае с теми же украденными 100 млн. долларов это означает, что после уплаты штрафа и отбывания срока наказания преступник, который предусмотрительно положил похищенные средства на счет в зарубежном банке, сможет ими спокойно пользоваться [10].

Поэтому восстановление положения о конфискации имущества в УК РФ и встраивание международно-правовых механизмов конфискации в УПК РФ – это одна из ближайших задач российских правоведов.

По данным А. И. Гурова, ущерб от экономических преступлений в 2007 г. составил 282 млрд. руб. Государство выделило для борьбы с ними 684 млрд. руб. Общая величина потерь государства достигла 1 трлн. руб. Конфисковано же имущества на 35 млн. руб., в том числе три старых трактора, электрические шнуры, мобильные телефоны. Виллы, яхты, самолеты и прочие активы криминальных олигархов среди конфискованного имущества не значатся [6].

В 2003 г., до исключения конфискации имущества как вида наказания реформой от 8 декабря 2003 г., она была назначена в 16 663 случаях. Затем три года (2004, 2005, 2006 гг.) не было ни одной конфискации. На этом фоне три конфискации, имевшие место в 2007 г., – явный прогресс. В целом же налицо беспрецедентное отмывание преступных доходов посредством федерального законодательства. Неужели на это и была направлена реформа [7]?

Как справедливо указывает Н. Ф. Кузнецова, если конфискации имущества не будет возвращена в УК РФ как вид наказания, положения о ней в виде уголовно-правовой меры должны быть изменены в соответствии с ратифицированными Россией Конвенцией против транснациональной организованной преступности (в 2004 г.) и Конвенцией против коррупции (в 2006 г.).

Конституционный Суд РФ в определении от 8 июля 2004 г. N 251-О, прямо указал, что: «Норма, содержащаяся в пункте 1 части третьей статьи 81 УПК Российской Федерации (пункт 1 статьи 86 УПК РСФСР), будучи по своей природе и сущности нормой уголовно-процессуального законодательства как самостоятельной отрасли в системе законодательства Российской Федерации, имеет собственный предмет правового регулирования

– институт вещественных доказательств в уголовном судопроизводстве. Как таковая данная норма, обеспечивая выполнение Российской Федерацией принятых на себя международно-правовых обязательств применительно к сфере уголовно-процессуального законодательства, не подменяет и не может подменять собой нормы уголовного закона, которыми и только которыми конфискация устанавливается в качестве уголовного наказания, и, соответственно, не исключает урегулирование вопросов конфискации в сфере уголовного законодательства с учетом предписаний названных конвенций».

Необходимо отметить, что главная цель транснациональных преступных сообществ – получение высокой прибыли и постоянное увеличение доходов, для достижения которых нередко используются методы «коррупционного подкупа» чиновников и «замаскированного» проникновения представителей транснациональной организованной преступности в органы государственной власти и управления, а также правоохранные органы. Поэтому важнейшим направлением борьбы с транснациональной организованной преступностью становится нейтрализация путей ее финансирования, ликвидация источников преступных доходов. Именно правовая модель законов RICO о конфискации любой прибыли и собственности, добытых преступным сообществом и его отдельными членами, была положена в основу конвенций ООН против транснациональной организованной преступности и против коррупции. Исходя из международно-правовых требований, конфискация преступных доходов может осуществляться только на основе борьбы с отмыванием этих же самых преступных доходов. Введение международно-правовых стандартов борьбы с организованной преступностью, коррупцией и терроризмом – это лекарство от «криминологического радикализма». При этом само собой разумеется, что «лечение» законодательства приведет к успеху только в том случае, если будет сопровождаться комплексом оздоровительных мер в отношении судебной системы, системы правоохранительных органов и специальных служб [10, с. 6].

Сегодня в Казахстан легально и нелегально приезжает очень много людей, большое число граждан РК постоянно проживают за рубежом, в то же время в Казахстане работает много иностранцев, выполняя функции должностных лиц в тех или иных иностранных или международных организациях. Много проблем возникает и по вопросам выдачи лиц, совершивших преступления. С незаконной миграцией непосредственно связана торговля людьми. И здесь речь идет о таких видах торговли людьми как с целью сексуальной эксплуатации, с целью трудовой эксплуатации и торговле человеческими органами. Последняя, самая острая и малоизученная проблема. Криминальная активность здесь высокая. Об этом говорят последние документы Всемирной организации здравоохранения ООН [8].

Представляется, что с учетом складывающейся ситуации ст. ст. 6, 7 и 8 Уголовного кодекса РК (УК РК) не в полной мере регулируют возникающие отношения. Поэтому возможно появление вместо трех статей целого раздела. Кстати, специальный раздел, посвященный этим вопросам, предусмотрен в Уголовном кодексе Франции, Голландии, Швеции, Швейцарии и других государств.

Особенно широко в Конвенции регламентирован порядок выдачи преступников, если к совершению преступления последними причастна организованная преступная группа и лицо, в отношении которого запрашивается выдача, находится на территории запрашиваемого государства-участника, при условии что деяние, в связи с которым запрашивается выдача, является уголовно наказуемым согласно внутреннему законодательству, как запрашивающего государства-участника, так и запрашиваемого.

Выдача преступников согласно ст. 16 данной Конвенции производится в соответствии с условиями, предусматриваемыми внутренним законодательством запрашиваемого государства-участника или применимыми к договорам о выдаче, включая, в том числе и условия, связанные с требованиями о минимальном наказании применительно к выдаче, и основания, на которых запрашиваемое государство-участник может отказать в выдаче. Так, государство-участник может отказать в выдаче лица, подозреваемого в совершении преступления, лишь на том основании, что оно является его гражданином, обязано по просьбе запрашивающей стороны передать дело без неоправданных задержек своим компетентным органам, как в случае любого другого преступления опасного характера согласно своему внутреннему законодательству.

Кроме того, п. 14 ст. 16 Конвенции предусматривает обязательные случаи отказа в выдаче преступника – если есть основания полагать, что:

а) просьба о выдаче имеет целью преследование или наказание лица по причине его пола, расы, вероисповедания, гражданства, этнического происхождения или политических убеждений;

б) удовлетворение просьбы о выдаче нанесет ущерб положению лица по любой из этих причин.

К достоинствам Конвенции следует отнести детальную регламентацию различных форм сотрудничества государств с транснациональной преступностью, практически учитывающую весь опыт, используемый в международной практике.

Конвенция определяет различные формы сотрудничества государств с транснациональной организованной преступностью:

1) заключение двусторонних или многосторонних соглашений о передаче лиц, осужденных к лишению свободы за преступления, охватываемые настоящей конвенцией, с тем чтобы они могли отбывать срок наказания на их территории (ст. 17);

2) оказание друг другу взаимной правовой помощи в расследовании, уголовном преследовании и судебном разбирательстве в связи с преступлениями, являющимися транснациональными по своему характеру, в том числе, если потерпевшие, свидетели, доходы, средства совершения преступлений или доказательства находятся в запрашиваемом государстве-участнике, а также, если к совершению преступления причастна организованная преступная группа (ст. 18);

3) создание органов по проведению совместных расследований (ст. 19);

4) осуществление каждым государством-участником таких специальных мер расследования, как использование контролируемых поставок, электронного и других форм наблюдения, агентурных операций с целью

ведения эффективной борьбы против организованной преступности и в соответствии с основными принципами международного права и своего внутреннего законодательства (ст. 20);

5) взаимная передача производства в целях уголовного преследования и сведений о судимости (ст. 21-22);

6) принятие надлежащих мер по обеспечению эффективной защиты свидетелям и помощи потерпевшим (ст. 24-25);

7) сбор, анализ и обмен информацией о характере организованной преступности (ст. 28);

8) подготовка кадров и техническая помощь правоохранительных органов государств-участников конвенции (ст. 29);

9) принятия мер для поощрения лиц, которые участвуют или участвовали в предоставлении информации об организованных преступных группах, а также оказывали фактическую, конкретную помощь правоохранительным органам в целях лишения организованных преступных групп их доходов или ресурсов от преступлений (ст. 26);

10) тесное сотрудничество между правоохранительными органами для эффективного применения мер борьбы с преступлениями, охватываемыми настоящей конвенцией (ст. 27).

Уголовный кодекс Российской Федерации (1996 г.) и Уголовный кодекс Республики Казахстан (1997 г.) определяют понятие «организованная группа» в довольно усеченном виде, а вводя понятие «преступная организация (сообщество)», совершенно не раскрывает его смысл. При подготовке УК не были использованы положения Рекомендательного законодательного акта «О борьбе с организованной преступностью», принятого постановлением Межпарламентской ассамблеи государств – участников СНГ в 1996 г. Между тем в этом международно-правовом документе толкуются такие понятия, как «преступная организация» и «преступное сообщество», которых так не хватает в действующем российском и казахстанском Уголовных кодексах.

Поэтому, любую крупную бизнес-структуру в современной России можно воспринимать либо как потенциальную, либо как реальную преступную организацию. Для этого есть и научное обоснование. Например, в США еще с 1970-х гг. организованная преступность определяется как модель предприятия [8, с. 328-330.]. Российские ученые пошли еще дальше. Авторы вышедшей в 2003-м монографии «Финансово-правовые особенности криминализации холдинговых корпораций» рассматривают практически все холдинговые корпорации как наиболее крупные преступные организации, доминирующие в ряде отраслей российской экономики [2, с. 104]. Расследованием уголовных дел в отношении «МОСТА», «СИБУРа», «ЮКОСа», по существу, на практике реализована научная концепция противодействия «предприятию как форме организованной преступности», применяемая к большинству крупных отечественных бизнес-структур.

Заключение

В качестве механизма борьбы с транснациональной преступностью Конвенция предлагает государствам принятие:

- законодательных и иных мер, направленных на предупреждение фактов отмывания доходов от преступлений (ст. 6, 7);

- мер против коррупции и ответственности юридических лиц за участие последних в серьезных преступлениях, к которым причастна организованная преступность (ст. 8, 9);

- мер, которые могут потребоваться для обеспечения возможности конфискации и ареста доходов от преступлений и распоряжения конфискованными доходами от преступлений или имуществом (ст. 12-14).

В настоящее время организованная преступность приобрела новое качество - транснациональный характер. Механизм борьбы с транснациональной организованной преступностью в целях обеспечения национальной безопасности каждого государства должен быть комплексным, ориентированным на ее пресечение не только мерами уголовно-правового воздействия, но и посредством использования регламентированных в международных конвенциях, реализуемых в национальном законодательстве, рычагов противодействия основным источникам преступных доходов.

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ИММУНОПРОФИЛАКТИКА ГЕПАТИТА «В» У ДЕТЕЙ С ОНКОГЕМАТОЛОГИЧЕСКИМИ ЗАБОЛЕВАНИЯМИ

HEPATITIS B IMMUNIZATION IN CHILDREN WITH HEMATOLOGICAL MALIGNANCIES

Аннотация / Abstract

Изучена эффективность вакцинопрофилактики гепатита В у больных с онкогематологическими заболеваниями. Результаты исследования показали, что рекомбинантная дрожжевая вакцина против ВГВ является ареактивной при введении ее детям с онкогематологическими заболеваниями. У больных ОГЗ вакцинированных «Easyfive™» протективный иммунитет сформировался у 57,69%, в сравнении с вакцинированными «Euvax» (47,5%). Оценка результатов исследования уровня специфических антител против гепатита В, у больных ОГЗ (регистрация серонегативных титров, преобладание низких титров) настоятельно требует проведения дополнительных иммуно-корректирующих мероприятий.

Efficacy of hepatitis B vaccine in patients with hematologic malignancies is studied. The results showed that the recombinant yeast hepatitis B vaccine is administered areactive when introduced to children with hematologic malignancies. 57,69% of patients vaccinated CPT «Easyfive™» formed protective immunity compared to the vaccinated «Euvax» (47,5%). Evaluation of the research results of the level of specific antibodies against hepatitis B in patients with CPT (registration of seronegative titres, the prevalence of low titers) urgently requires additional immune corrective measures.

Введение

В настоящее время широкая вакцинация против вирусного гепатита В становится основой большинства программ борьбы с этой инфекцией во многих странах мира. Накопленный опыт по использованию рекомбинантных вакцин позволяет отметить их высокую иммуногенность и низкую реактогенность. Тем не менее, установлено, что от 5 до 10% здоровых взрослых, даже при отсутствии нарушения графика вакцинации, остаются серонегативными, поскольку известно, что иммунный ответ на вакцинацию генетически детерминирован и зависит от многих факторов. В связи с этим возникает проблема иммунологической эффективности активной иммунизации у лиц, имеющих различные заболевания [1, 3].

Заболеть вирусными гепатитами можно в любом возрасте, однако в силу ряда причин (социальных, санитарно-гигиенических и др.) дети являются контингентом высокого риска по вероятности инфицирования вирусами

гепатитов А и В. Именно в детском возрасте поражение печени в подавляющем большинстве связано с вирусными гепатитами [5]. Побочные эффекты свойственны всем лекарственным препаратам, в том числе и вакцинам. Но риск получить осложнение от прививки гораздо ничтожнее, чем риск от последствий инфекционной болезни у не привитых детей. Дети, остающиеся не привитыми, это дети с различными злокачественными опухолями, получающие длительные парентеральные манипуляции и массивные гемотрансфузии, что позволяет отнести их в группу повышенного риска инфицирования HBV [4].

Как известно, иммунизирующим агентом вакцины против ВГВ является HBsAg и на сегодняшний день известно десять субтипов, которые имеют разное географическое распределение [1]. До настоящего времени нет научно-обоснованных данных о преимуществе эффективности применения вакцин, изготовленных на основе тех или иных генотипов HBV и субтипов HBsAg. Установлено, что в некоторых случаях может развиваться ВГВ несмотря на проведенную трёхкратную вакцинацию. Также многие проблемы, связанные с напряженностью и длительностью иммунного ответа, остаются пока не решенными. Изучение состояния иммунной системы у вакцинированных даст возможность определить характер и силу иммунного ответа [2]. В Республике Узбекистан, благодаря внедрению с 2001 года вакцинации против ВГВ в национальную программу иммунизации, отмечается значительная тенденция к снижению заболеваемости ВГВ. Успешное применение вакцин против ВГВ оказывает заметное и быстрое влияние на активность эпидемического процесса при ВГВ, позволяет добиться значительного уменьшения заболеваемости.

Однако серьёзную проблему представляет индивидуальная способность вакцинируемых детей раннего возраста отвечать адекватно на вакцинацию, т.к. иммунный ответ на введение вакцины может не достигать требуемой интенсивности, вследствие влияния ряда факторов, в частности, незрелости иммунной системы и иммунодефицитных состояний ребенка.

Важной является проблема иммунизации ослабленных детей и детей из групп риска по формированию неадекватного иммунного ответа, которые должны быть защищены в первую очередь.

Цель, материалы и методы

Цель исследования. Изучение эффективности вакцинопрофилактики гепатита В у больных с онкогематологическими заболеваниями.

Материалы и методы. Для решения вопроса об эффективности вакцинопрофилактики ГВ у больных с онкогематологическими заболеваниями (ОГЗ), нами были иммунизированы против ГВ 113 детей, из которых 36 (31,86%) девочек и 77 (68,14%) мальчиков.

Проведены общеклинические методы исследования. Иммунногенность вакцины определяли по наличию и уровню титров протективных антител (anti-HBs) в сыворотке крови через 1 месяц после 2-го, через 1 месяц после 3-го введения вакцины. Использовали тест-системы иммуноферментного анализа «Abbot». Протективным титром считали уровень Anti-HBs не ниже 10 МЕ/л. По рекомендациям ВОЗ, количество протективных антител в концентрации не

ниже 10МЕ/мл считается достаточным для защиты организма против ВГВ. Реактогенность оценивали по частоте и характеру местных и общих реакций на введенный препарат.

Для оценки эффективности, проведенной вакцинации, обследуемые дети, были разделены на группы в зависимости от кратности вакцинации и срока давности проведенной вакцинации детей с ОГЗ. Из 113 детей с ОГЗ, 61 ребёнок (I группа), вакцинированы рекомбинантной дрожжевой вакциной против гепатита В «Euvaх», полный курс вакцинации получил 41(67,2%) – вакцинация была проведена 3-х кратно (0,5 мл) по схеме 0-1-6 месяцев, вакцину вводили в дельтовидную мышцу плеча, из них 13 (21,31%) – были вакцинированы 2-х кратно и 7 детей (11,47%) – однократно. 52 (II группа) ребёнка получили вакцинацию 4-х кратно (0,5 мл), вакцинированные вакциной «EasyfiveTM». Полный курс вакцинации получили 16 (30,77%) – вакцинация была проведена 4-кратно по схеме 0-2-3-4 месяцев, вакцину вводили в верхнюю передне-боковую часть бедра, либо в дельтовидную мышцу плеча детям старшего возраста, из них 27 (51,92%) – были вакцинированы 3-х кратно, 5 (9,61%) – были вакцинированы 2-х кратно и 4 детей (7,69%) – однократно.

В первую группу был включен 61 ребёнок, вакцинированных «Euvaх» девочек отмечалось 19 (31,15%), а мальчиков 42 (68,85%), с ОЛЛ – 36 больных, ОМЛ – 6 больных, ХМЛ – 3 больных, ОНЛ – 11 больных, лимфобластная лимфосаркома – 5 детей. Во вторую группу были включены 52 ребёнка, вакцинированных «EasyfiveTM» девочек отмечалось 17 (32,69%), а мальчиков 35 (67,31%), с ОЛЛ – 31 больной, ОМЛ – 5 больных, ХМЛ – 2 больных, ОНЛ – 6 больных, лимфобластная лимфосаркома – 8 детей.

Результаты исследования

Большинство вакцинированных детей страдали острым лимфобластным лейкозом 67 (59,3%), острый недифференцированный лейкоз 17 (15%), лимфобластная лимфосаркома 13 (11,5%), острый миелобластный лейкоз 11 (9,7%), хронический миелолейкоз 5 (4,4%). При этом более половины из наблюдаемых детей были в возрасте до 10 лет 93 (83,2%). В поствакцинальном периоде у больных с ОГЗ не было выявлено ни в одном случае обострения основного заболевания.

Изучая иммуногенность вакцины «Euvaх» в первой группе, была определена частота сероконверсии и уровень антител через 1 месяц после законченного курса. Оказалось, что из 61 ребёнка с различной патологией ОГЗ серопозитивными были 29 (47,54±3,3%): из них 21 (58,3±2,8%) – с ОЛЛ, с ОНЛ – 5 (45,45±3,1%), с ОМЛ – 2 (18,18±1,2%) и ЛЛ – 1 (7,69±0,6%). Уровень антител, из 29 серопозитивных больных, в 34,4±2,1% достигал значений от 10 до 99 МЕ/л, и только в 13,1±0,5% – от 100 до 1000 МЕ/л, а среднее значение титра антител составило 81,55±76,37 МЕ/л. Серонегативными оставались 32 (52,46±3,2%) детей, из которых 15 (46,9±3,3%) – с ОЛЛ, 4 (12,5±0,4%) – с ОМЛ, 3 (9,4±0,6%) – с ХМЛ, 6 (18,7±1,3%) – с ОНЛ и 4 (12,5±0,4%) – ЛЛ.

Низкие титры anti-HBs формировались у вакцинированного «Euvaх» 21 (34,4±2,1%) больного ОГЗ. Низкие титры anti-HBs формировались у вакцинированных «Euvaх» 16 больных ОЛЛ (76,2±4,1%), а у больных с ОНЛ

этот титр отмечается у 3 больных ($14,3 \pm 0,5\%$), резко снижается этот титр у больных ОМЛ – 2 ($9,5 \pm 0,6\%$). Средние титры anti-HBs в группе вакцинированных «Euvaх» формировались только у 8 ($13,1 \pm 0,4\%$) больных с ОГЗ: у больных с ОЛЛ – 5 ($62,5 \pm 2,7\%$), у больных с ОНЛ – у 2 ($25 \pm 2,0\%$) и у больных с ЛЛ – 1 ($12,5 \pm 0,4\%$). В группе вакцинированных «Euvaх» показатели высоких титров ни у одного больного не были обнаружены.

Вторую группу составили 52 ребенка, получивших вакцинацию 4-хкратно (0,5 мл), вакцинированные вакциной «EasyfiveTM». Полный курс вакцинации получили 16 ($30,77 \pm 2,3\%$) – вакцинация была проведена 4-кратно по схеме 0-2-3-4 месяцев, вакцину вводили в верхнюю передне-боковую часть бедра, либо в дельтовидную мышцу плеча детям старшего возраста. Изучая иммуногенность вакцины EasyfiveTM определена частота сероконверсии и уровень антител у 52 больных с различными формами ОГЗ. Из 52 детей с различной патологией ОГЗ серопозитивными были 30 ($57,69 \pm 2,7\%$) ($p < 0,05$): из них 18 ($60 \pm 2,9\%$) – с ОЛЛ, 5 ($16,67 \pm 1,2\%$) ($p < 0,05$) – ЛЛ, 4 ($13,3 \pm 0,5\%$) ($p < 0,001$) – ОНЛ, 3 ($60 \pm 2,9\%$) ($p < 0,001$) – ОМЛ. Уровень антител из 30 серопозитивных больных в $38,46 \pm 1,3\%$ достигал значений от 10 до 99 МЕ/л, и только в $17,3 \pm 1,2\%$ – от 100 до 1000 МЕ/л, высокие значения отмечались в $1,9 \pm 0,1\%$ случаев, а среднее значение титра антител составило $81,55 \pm 76,37$ МЕ/л. Серонегативными оставались 22 ($42,3 \pm 2,8\%$) ($p < 0,05$) ребёнка, из которых 13 ($59,1 \pm 3,1\%$) ($p < 0,05$) – с ОЛЛ, 3 ($13,64 \pm 0,5\%$) – ЛЛ, 2 ($9,1 \pm 0,6\%$) ($p < 0,001$) – ОМЛ, 2 ($9,1 \pm 0,6\%$) – ХМЛ, 2 ($9,1 \pm 0,6\%$) ($p < 0,001$) – ОНЛ.

Низкие титры anti-HBs формировались у 20 вакцинированных «EasyfiveTM» ($38,46 \pm 2,3\%$) больных ОГЗ. Низкие титры anti-HBs формировались у 13 вакцинированных «EasyfiveTM» больных ОЛЛ ($65 \pm 10,7\%$), у больных с ОМЛ – 3 ($15 \pm 4,8\%$), с ОНЛ – 2 ($10 \pm 4,1\%$), у больных с ЛЛ этот титр снижается – 2 ($10 \pm 4,1\%$). Средние титры anti-HBs в группе вакцинированных «EasyfiveTM» формировались только у 9 больных с ОГЗ ($17,3 \pm 0,5\%$) ($p < 0,001$) больных: у больных с ОЛЛ – 4 ($44,4 \pm 5,7\%$) ($p > 0,05$), у больных с ЛЛ этот титр снижается – 3 ($33,3 \pm 7,1\%$) ($p > 0,05$), у больных с ОНЛ – 2 ($22,2 \pm 9,2\%$). В группе вакцинированных «EasyfiveTM» были выявлены показатели высоких титров у 1 ($1,9 \pm 0,1\%$) больного ОЛЛ, в сравнении с группой вакцинированных «Euvaх», где показатели высоких титров ни у одного больного не были обнаружены.

Таким образом, при различных формах поражения ОГЗ отмечались определенные колебания показателей среднего значения уровня антител, которые статистически достоверно в более высоком титре определялись у больных с ОЛЛ. Результаты исследования показали, что у больных ОГЗ вакцинированных «Euvaх», протективный иммунитет сформировался у 47,5%, в основном формировались низкие титры anti-HBs 34,4%, средние значения титра антител 65,74% МЕ/л. Результаты исследования показали, что у больных ОГЗ вакцинированных «EasyfiveTM» протективный иммунитет сформировался у 57,69%, в основном формировались низкие титры anti-HBs, высокий титр выявлен у 1,9% больных, средние значения титра антител составили 65,74% МЕ/л.

Исследования показали, что вакцина «EasyfiveTM» через месяц после законченного курса иммунизации по схеме 0-1-3-4 месяцев в дозе 0,5 является

эффективной в 57,69% случаев при применении у больных с ОГЗ, а средние значения титра специфических антител у серопозитивных детей превышают минимальный протективный уровень (10 МЕ/л) от 10 до 70 раз.

Выводы

1. Рекомбинантная дрожжевая вакцина против ВГВ является ареактивной при введении ее детям с онкогематологическими заболеваниями.
2. Результаты исследования показали, что у больных ОГЗ вакцинированных «EasyfiveTM» протективный иммунитет сформировался у 57,69%, в сравнении с вакцинированными «Euvaх» (47,5%).
3. Оценка результатов исследования уровня специфических антител против гепатита В, у больных ОГЗ (регистрация серонегативных титров, преобладание низких титров) настоятельно требует проведения дополнительных иммунокорректирующих мероприятий.

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